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The characteristics and motivations of female volunteers in long-term care settings.

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THE CHARACTERISTICS AND MOTIVATIONS OF FEMALE VOLUNTEERS IN
LONG TERM CARE SETTINGS

by
Linda Fata

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Department of Sociology and Anthropology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Arts at the
University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1996

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ABSTRACT

The intent of this study is to examine the relationship between the major characteristics and motivations of female volunteers in long-term care settings. Both a detailed description of who tends to volunteer as well as a sociocultural explanation for why one volunteers are provided. To assist in the sociocultural explanation, a life course paradigm of work transitions is utilized. Age-related differences in volunteer motivation are expected and represent the central focus of this study: Older women are primarily motivated by the internal rewards of volunteering whereas the younger volunteers are primarily motivated by the career-related rewards. The influence of gender, occupation, and setting are also considered. A questionnaire of mostly close-ended style questions is distributed by volunteer coordinators to the female volunteers of the long-term care organizations within the Windsor/Essex County area. A compilation of social characteristics presents the "typical" long-term care volunteer profile of a married, older woman of lower educational attainment, whose former main work position is lower-skilled, and whose volunteer work consists mainly of providing direct services to clients that are socio-emotional in nature. Support for the research hypotheses regarding the age-related differences in volunteer motivation is obtained and commonly identified reasons for volunteering are further explored. The relationship between one's main work tasks and one's volunteer tasks is also examined. The study concludes with the recognition of topical areas worthy of further research and the implications for the development and improvement of volunteer programming within a long-term care context.

To my parents who have made every sacrifice for my benefit.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Both the Canadian Federal Government and the Ontario Provincial Government have significantly decreased governmental contributions to health care. In response to these cutbacks, financially stressed health care organizations have introduced new cost-cutting practices to increase the efficiency and productivity of their services. One cost-cutting measure evident in the health care sector is the elimination of jobs and services, where fewer staff carry the responsibility of meeting the increasing number of patient care demands. Such cutbacks in the health care industry and its crippling effects on the quality of care for long-term care patients have directed increasing attention to the value and indispensability of trained and dedicated volunteers. Given the current health care crisis and the increased need for volunteers, it is critical to develop a more systematic approach to studying volunteers in long-term care settings, providing a more precise profile of who tends to volunteer and an explanation for why they volunteer.

To accomplish this, the relationship between the major characteristics and motivations of volunteers in long-term care settings is examined. This study provides a detailed descriptive analysis of the major characteristics and motivations of long-term care volunteers in order to create a more precise profile of who tends to volunteer in long-term care. It also presents a sociocultural explanation of the proposed relationship which specifically addresses age-related differences between female volunteers. For the purposes of this study, the sociocultural explanation is discussed in terms of the influence of the cultural practices and knowledge upon an individual's motivation to work--in particular, to perform voluntary work. The sociocultural perspective places the individual within a social and cultural context and explains the motivation to work in terms of these contextual influences. To identify the broader cultural context and the more specific social context for each age group, a life course paradigm is utilized, paying particular

attention to the transitions of women's work phases. The following pages argue that the different work experiences and opportunities of the different age groups are significant to the understanding of varying volunteer motivations. As well, the information uncovered by this investigation--such as identifying the factors which motivate volunteers in a long-term care setting and which influence their continued volunteer involvement--may help long-term care organizations improve their volunteer programs. With the recognition of commonly identified reasons for volunteering by age group, volunteer coordinators can more effectively develop and assign volunteers to programs that may satisfy the volunteer's interests--as well as the interests of the organization and client.

This paper is organized into six chapters. Chapter Two presents a critical assessment of the volunteer literature, identifying three key limitations of the volunteer literature that are later addressed in this study. The key limitations identified include (1) a general lack of recognizing the importance of setting in relation to the gender composition and the nature of the volunteer tasks performed in specific volunteer settings, (2) an inadequate treatment of the key variable, age, and its contribution to the understanding of varying motivations among age groups, and (3) a lack of a sociocultural theory to explain the relationship between major characteristics of volunteers and their motivations, and to account for the potential influence of gender, occupational class, and age-related factors such as time and the life cycle stages.

Chapter Three sets the theoretical background for understanding the relationship between the major characteristics and motivations of volunteers with discussions on the sociocultural approach and the life course structure of work transitions. The contributions of gendered and work-related experiences, as well as age-related factors are formally recognized with the modification of the life course model to more accurately depict the life stages of women. The chapter concludes with the identification of the specific hypotheses and research questions to be tested in this study including the relationship between age and motivation to volunteer, the relationship between one's main work and

one's volunteer work, and the relationship between occupational class and motivation to volunteer.

Chapter Four informs the reader on a variety of methodological issues. Questionnaires are distributed by the volunteer coordinators of four local homes for the aged and one chronic care unit of a local hospital. Efforts taken to minimize the potential threats to the reliability and validity of measures include test-retest, gaining feedback from the pretesters of the questionnaire, and a comparison of results to earlier studies. Frequency distributions with measures of central tendencies, measures of association, and chi-square tests constitute the statistical procedures employed in this study. The chapter closes with the ethical considerations of this study.

The discussion of the results in Chapter Five is divided into two central parts: a descriptive analysis and an explanatory analysis. The descriptive analysis presents the typical long-term care volunteer in both a general and an age-specific (age group) profile, and discusses the influence of age in the construction of the profile of who tends to volunteer in this specific setting. The explanatory analysis tests the hypotheses of this study and discusses the findings in terms of a sociocultural perspective using a life course structure. Not only does this section present a sociocultural explanation and recognize the importance of age to the study of volunteer motivations, but this section also considers the issue of setting and its potential effects upon the study of long-term care volunteers. In addition, some of the limitations of the study such as the difficulty of analyzing work tasks and the influence of occupational class are acknowledged.

Chapter Six concludes the study with a discussion of the implications for further research in this area of study as well as what these results suggest for improving volunteer programs in long-term care settings.

CHAPTER 2

A CRITICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE VOLUNTEER LITERATURE

Levine (1988) observed that the most recent wave of renewed interest in volunteerism in twentieth century America occurred in the 1980s. As well, a considerable proportion of the most recent literature on volunteer characteristics and motivations was done in the 1980s (Chambre, 1987; Falgout and Forsyth, 1988; Fengler, 1984; Frisch and Gerrard, 1981; Gillespie and King I, 1985; Jenner, 1982; Leat, 1983; Sherrott, 1983; Smith, 1981; Statistics Canada, 1989) with relatively little research carried out in the 1990s (Fagan, 1992; Fletcher, 1991; Hoad, 1991; Pold, 1990; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1991). In this chapter, it is argued that much of the volunteer literature is descriptive in nature and predominantly psychological in its explanatory approach. While a number of studies (Gillespie and King I, 1985; Leat, 1983; Sherrott, 1983) have begun to address these limitations, the literature as a whole remains weak in these areas.

Three specific weaknesses are identified in the literature and addressed in this study. First, there is a general neglect of the potential affects the volunteer setting may have upon the gender composition of volunteers as well as the nature of the volunteer tasks. Second, there is an incomplete and ambiguous examination of some or all of the major demographic characteristics, particularly in reference to different age groups. Finally, there is a general lack of a theoretical explanation of the relationship between volunteer characteristics and motivations with the exception of predominantly psychological frameworks. The following pages discuss these three key limitations. As well, the body of volunteer research that provides direction for this study is highlighted.

The first weakness of the volunteer literature identified is that relatively few studies recognize the importance of setting in developing descriptive profiles of volunteers. Many studies reported that a majority of the volunteers were women but they did not acknowledge that this gender inequity may be a function of the particular

volunteer setting under examination (Fagan, 1992; Frisch and Gerrard, 1981; Gillespie and King I, 1985).

However, more recent studies reported that a greater proportion of women were found in certain types of organizations than men (Pold, 1990; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1991). For example, Pold (1990) reported that a greater proportion of women than men were found volunteering within health care organizations whereas a greater percentage of men than women volunteered in economic, sports, and recreation organizations. As Pold (1990) described, the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1991) demonstrated support for the disproportionate distribution of males and females by type of organization. In another more recent study, Hoad (1991) found that a greater percentage of the female volunteers were concentrated in the specific activity of caregiving (91%) and administrative-type duties (76%) than the male counterparts. This suggests that a more accurate depiction of the typical volunteer must take into consideration the particular setting within which the volunteer is placed and the nature of the volunteer task. However, relatively few studies in the literature on volunteerism (Hoad, 1991; Pold, 1990; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1991) emphasized this distinction, or they did so without elaborating why one gender may be over-represented within a specific volunteer setting than the other gender. As such, most studies failed to expand our level of understanding of why a disproportionate percentage of women were found within certain types of organizations or within certain volunteer task areas.

A second weakness of the volunteer literature was the cursory examination of a key characteristic age. Not only did many researchers fail to adequately operationalize *age* as a key variable, but they also failed to provide a clear and complete examination of volunteers with respect to other major demographic characteristics, particularly in reference to the different age groups. For example, the study by Frisch and Gerrard (1981) did not attempt to provide a detailed description of volunteers with respect to specific age groups such as the young adults and the middle-aged; instead, the authors

described the volunteers only in terms of an age range and a mean age. Such a presentation is not only susceptible to an outlier effect--few but extreme ages that may dramatically alter the mean age and thus provide an inaccurate picture of who is typically a volunteer--but it provides the reader with no real sense of who is typically a volunteer with respect to various age groups.

In addition, some studies provided an incomplete breakdown of volunteers by only presenting information regarding the age group with the largest percentage of volunteers (Falgout and Forsyth, 1988; Pold, 1990). Other studies were limited in terms of age group representation of volunteers by choosing to include only those within a single age category (Chambre, 1987; Fagan, 1992; Fengler, 1984; Fletcher, 1991; Hadley, Webb, and Farrell, 1975). The failure to adequately operationalize and include age as an important mediating variable in the explanation of volunteering suggests that researchers do not recognize the potential significance of age in understanding volunteer motivations.

The literature has also failed to provide a clear and complete examination of how other major demographic characteristics such as marital status, financial status, educational attainment, and labor force status are closely related to age. As Sorensen (1986: 183-184) points out, "career, employment, family, and schooling events are," to some extent, "organized in time by age." This suggests the need to develop age-specific profiles which recognize and identify variations in demographic characteristics of volunteers by age. However, most researchers have not addressed this issue. For example, the study by Pold (1990) which presented a volunteer profile simply reported each characteristic individually with no attempt to discuss the findings in relation to the other characteristics such as age.

Falgout and Forsyth (1988) also neglected to analyze their findings regarding the demographic characteristics in relation to the age distribution of their sample of ombudsmen in a long-term care program. They discussed their findings in relation to the typical

volunteer characteristics of an unemployed, middle to upper income housewife rather than identifying and discussing how their results largely corresponded to the expected life experiences given the age distribution of their sample. Falgout and Forsyth (1988) claimed that the most *unexpected* finding was that, in contrast to the traditional volunteer profile, a fair majority (59%) of their volunteers were working for pay; however, given that a large percentage (66%) of their volunteers were of pre-retirement age, such a finding appears to be in keeping with the expectation of the sample's age distribution. In other words, Falgout and Forsyth (1988) failed to recognize how other demographic characteristics such as labor force status and one's income level are largely in keeping with the commonly expected life experiences of a specific age group.

The poor operationalization of age and the lack of recognition for the influence of age with respect to the other major demographic characteristics is perhaps indicative of the larger problem with respect to the volunteer literature: the relative lack of explanatory research. Relatively few researchers have analyzed reasons why people volunteer (Leat, 1983). Of the relatively few explanatory studies, individual involvement in volunteer activity has been discussed largely in terms of psychological characteristics, such as altruism and self-actualization, with little mention of other qualifications such social, cultural, or situational factors (Fagan, 1992; Frisch and Gerrard, 1981; Jenner, 1982; Smith, 1981). For example, only two studies (Fagan, 1992; Smith, 1981) recognized that altruistic motives are more socioculturally acceptable and desirable than self-interest motives and that individuals may categorize themselves more readily as altruistic "in spite of facts that indicate substantial self-interest, selfishness, and non-altruism" (Smith, 1981: 30). And only one of these studies briefly mentioned that "the specific goals of people who volunteer are dependent upon where those people are in their life cycles,"—although, an explanation or discussion to advance this suggested relationship between life course and volunteering was not provided (Fagan, 1992: 8).

While some researchers have recognized the fallibility of relying solely on psychological explanations for volunteer motivations, the literature as a whole continues to support psychological explanations at the expense of developing alternative and explicit theoretical perspectives that acknowledge the social, cultural, and situational factors which may better explain the reasons why people volunteer. However, a few researchers have begun to make contributions towards the development of a more systematic approach to understanding why people choose to volunteer (Gillespie and King I, 1985; Leat, 1983; Sherrott, 1983).

Leat (1983) identified the need to distinguish the reasons why volunteer activity was chosen by the individual as opposed to other courses of action. Leat (1983: 51) suggested that to understand why people select a more formal type of volunteering as opposed to other courses of action, the researcher must inquire "about the expectations of and rewards derived from volunteering and to relate these to the personal and social circumstances of the volunteer." In addition, Leat (1983) identified the need to distinguish the reasons why volunteer activity was chosen by an individual as opposed to alternative courses of action *available* to a volunteer. For example, the predominance of women in volunteer work is traditionally explained in terms of women having more spare time and flexible working hours (Leat, 1983). Leat (1983: 54) argued that *having spare time* was an inadequate explanation because it failed to explain why volunteering was chosen over another course of action; however, "if women wish to use their spare time to create an identity or acquire a role outside the home, then volunteering, with its relative identifiability and formality, becomes more explicable."

In apparent agreement with Leat's proposal, Sherrott's (1983) study attempted to illuminate the social and personal elements that influence the volunteers. Sherrott (1983: 62) acknowledged that there was "little systematic knowledge about why people volunteer" and that many studies "simply categorize the statements of motives uttered by volunteers while giving little attention to circumstances and life histories." To

demonstrate the importance of social and personal circumstances, Sherrott, in a focused in-depth technique of interviewing, provided a descriptive account of fifty volunteers and their volunteering as well as the explanations they gave for their involvement. And despite the individual idiosyncrasies of the volunteers, Sherrott (1983: 101) noted two basic approaches to volunteering: an instrumental approach where costs are weighed and a moralistic approach where "cost is either irrelevant, or is itself central to the reward".

Although strong arguments are appearing in the literature that recognize the importance of social context and situational factors (i.e., time and age in the life cycle) to the study of volunteers, these variables "are the least studied and the least understood" (Gillespie and King I, 1985: 811). Gillespie and King I (1985) described the reasons identified by a sample of Red Cross volunteers and analyzed those motives with respect to three key demographic variables: age, marital status, and sex. The findings suggested that the age of the volunteer was an important variable with respect to understanding volunteer motivations, and an intervening variable in the relationship between marital status and motivations. As well, they provided possible explanations for their findings that began to recognize different life cycle experiences. Specifically, Gillespie and King I (1985) found that younger volunteers (38 and younger) described their volunteering as a means for obtaining job skills and exploration than older volunteers. Based on these findings, they argued that the employment and career concerns of the younger volunteers may explain the age difference in motivations. Yet, despite the contributions by Leat (1983), Sherrott (1983), and Gillespie and King I (1985) in advancing an alternative perspective which begins to move away from the psychological level, the literature remains deficient in providing an explicit theory to explain the different reasons for volunteering by age.

On the other hand, while studies (Chambre, 1987; Fagan, 1992; Fengler, 1984; Fletcher, 1991; Hadley, Webb, and Farrell, 1975) focusing upon a single age category are limited with respect to understanding the relationship between volunteer motivations and

age, the collective contributions of these studies have provided direction and have contributed to the formulation of the hypotheses and research questions for this study. For example, Fagan's (1992) study of college volunteers identified that younger volunteers were primarily motivated by the instrumental aspects of volunteer work whereas Fengler's (1984) study found that older volunteers were predominantly motivated by the sociability attributes of volunteering. Together, these studies suggest that volunteer motivations may vary with age. The study of young volunteers working with the elderly by Hadley and others (1975) provided further insight, particularly in the case of the younger volunteers, by identifying the role of the school system in encouraging and sometimes requiring students to volunteer in community agencies.

Along with age, gender and class have been increasingly acknowledged in the literature. Both Chambre (1987) and Demos (1975) claimed that younger women tended to be involved in voluntary work that involves children-- particularly in areas related to their own children--suggesting the influence of gender and setting. Furthermore, Chambre (1987: 50) stated that "class differences in volunteering has a great deal to do with the kinds of skills and abilities the volunteer can offer as well as the types of jobs to which the volunteer might be assigned." However, again, the influence of class and gender on volunteering has been under-theorized. For example, Chambre (1987) acknowledged the importance of class to the study of volunteerism, however, the relationship between class and one's motivation to volunteer remains unexamined.

To address the three key limitations of the volunteer literature and to build on the contributions from the various studies which recognize the influence of social and situational factors, this study develops and tests a sociocultural theory of volunteering, based on the work cycle of the life course paradigm to explain the motivations of long-term care volunteers in terms of age. In addition, an effort is also made to further explore the roles of gender and class in the study of long-term care volunteers.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

One point that is evident from examining existing theoretical approaches to motivation is that there is a strong bias toward an individualistic orientation, with little attention to [social] context or culturally based influences. (Rueda and Moll, 1994: 119)

As Stryker (1980: 53) has pointed out, "a satisfactory theoretical framework must bridge social structure and person, must be able to move from the level of the person to that of large-scale social structure and back again." Thus, to provide an adequate explanation of the reciprocal impact between the social structure and the social person, research needs to specify both "the variations in social structure and the variations in social beings as well as the connectives among these variations" (Stryker, 1980: 53). Although the social structural variations in relation to the meaning of work are mentioned with respect to other life course transitions such as family and economic transitions, the primary focus of this study is the impact of cultural and social practices upon the individual's motivation to work and more specifically, to do volunteer work.

Rueda and Moll (1994) offer a conceptualization of motivation that is in accordance with current sociocultural, interactionist views on recognizing the interplay of individual cognitive abilities and the sociocultural context within which individuals act. Rueda and Moll (1994: 122) present the key elements of a sociocultural approach to motivation which are as follows: "the role of social interactions, ...the influence of culturally based knowledge and practices, ...the mediating role of signs and symbols, and ...a focus on thinking as inseparable from social and cultural activities." In the following section, the four key elements of the sociocultural approach as outlined by Rueda and Moll are described and a single key element--the influence of cultural knowledge and practices upon an individual's motivation to volunteer--is highlighted. A life course

paradigm is then proposed as a basis for organizing and presenting the cultural knowledge and practices, particularly those related to the work cycle that are likely to influence one's actions and perceptions of volunteer work. Gender, occupational class, and age-related factors are then presented as critical considerations in understanding female volunteers and their motivations. The chapter concludes with the presentation of the hypotheses and research questions for the proposed research project.

The Sociocultural Approach

A sociocultural theory of motivation stresses the interconnectedness of social and cognitive activity where "motivation is not viewed as a characteristic of the individual, but of the individual-in-action within specific contexts" (Rueda and Moll, 1994: 120-121). Rueda and Moll propose a sociocultural approach to studying motivation, suggesting that motivation is "socially negotiated, socially distributed, and context specific" (O'Neil Jr. and Drillings, 1994: 5). Due to limitations of time and resources, this study concentrates on one of these four key elements, specifically the influence of culturally based knowledge and practices upon volunteer motivation. This particular element of the sociocultural approach is selected based on the researcher's desire to provide a broad basis—for recognizing the commonly identified reasons for volunteering and the social characteristics shared among volunteers—that may assist future researchers in identifying areas in which to concentrate and gain a more in-depth understanding of the proposed relationship. Before the description of this one element in greater detail, a brief description is provided of the other three elements to assist the reader in conceptualizing the utility of the sociocultural approach as a whole as well as to accentuate the need for further research.

It is during social interaction that collective meanings develop among members of society, creating a potential for change and for stability in the relation of the individual and the social structure. From the sociocultural perspective, social interaction serves as the link between the social person and the social structure. The sociocultural approach

also highlights individuals' use of cultural tools, such as language to communicate with one another during the interaction processes. Rueda and Moll referred to this phenomenon as the "mediating role of signs and symbols" and stress that signs and symbols help to maintain the cultural expectations on behavior. Lastly, Rueda and Moll (1994) propose to view thinking as inseparable from social and cultural activities. In other words, to view cognitive abilities as socially constructed and distributed rather than as something that is an individualistic quality. For a complete and more accurate application of the sociocultural approach to the understanding of volunteer motivation, an in-depth study using all four elements is needed. However, to begin the investigative process, one element of the sociocultural approach—the influence of cultural knowledge and practices upon motivation of volunteers—is highlighted in this study.

The Life Course Paradigm

To assist in the explanation of the motivations of volunteers, a life course model depicting the life stages of North Americans is used to outline the cultural practices. The life course paradigm, with its layout of life transitions and related implications of particular positions and roles each person within a particular life phase is likely to experience, assists in placing or locating the individual in a situational or contextual setting. The life course model identifies rather distinct and recognizable phases of life, each of which has "meanings that are understood and acknowledged by society and the individual" (Buchmann, 1989: 16). At each phase, a structure of social and cultural norms are imposed on individuals that shape human behavior to conform to what is appropriate and expected at any given age in the life course process.

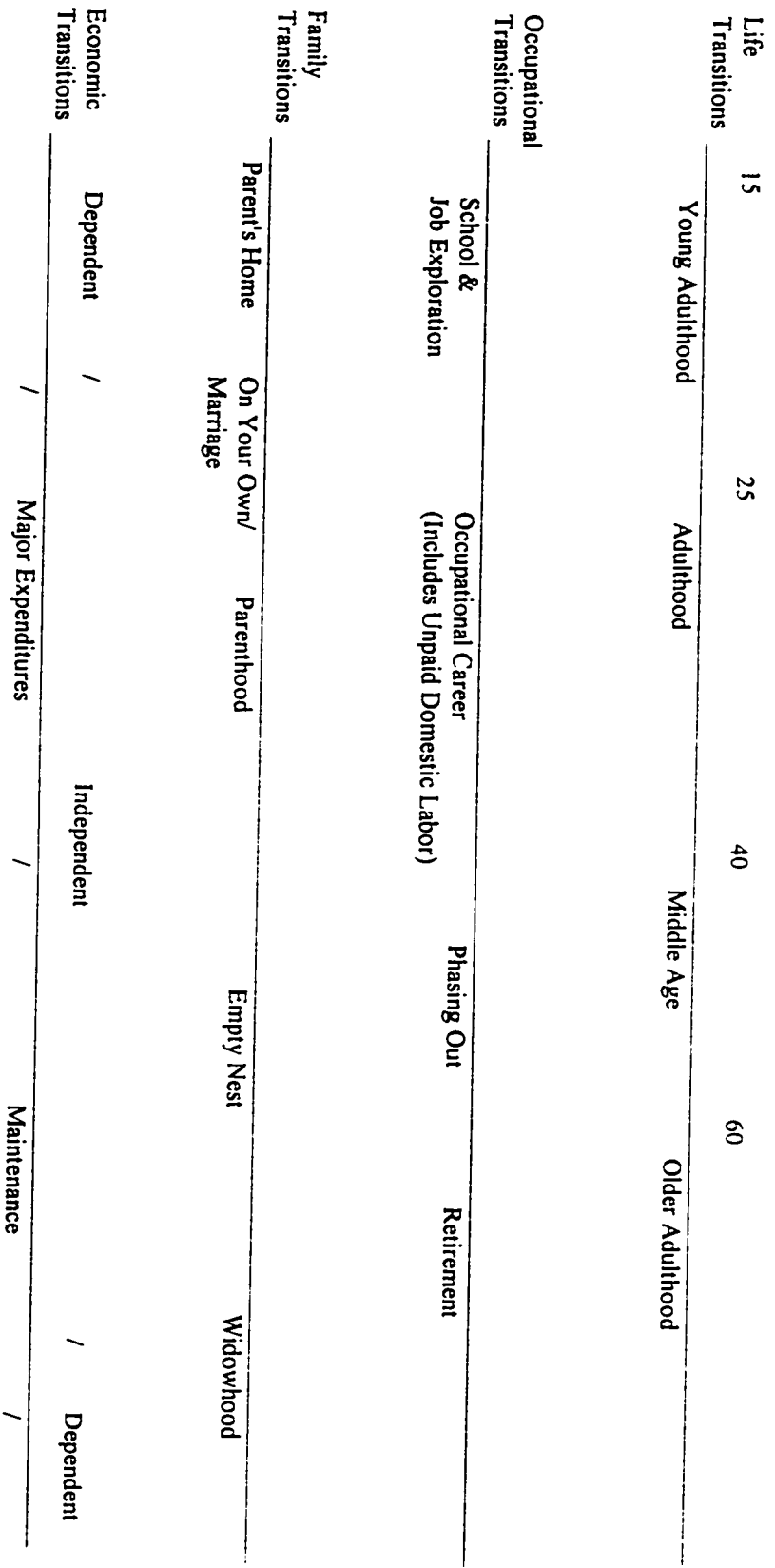
Life course models address several elements common to the human life cycle such as family, education, work, and retirement. Some models describe a single life course path with respect to just one of these elements and other models encompass a multitude of phases. For the purposes of this study, a life course model specific to the

phases and transitions of work is utilized. It is important to note here that (1) the term *work* encompasses both paid and unpaid labor including domestic labor and volunteer activity as noted by numerous feminist theorists such as Stromberg and Harkess (1978) and Armstrong and Armstrong (1990); and (2) the various life course paths such as the transitions in family and work do not exist separately. Despite the latter point, the central focus of this study is to explain volunteer motivations in terms typically associated with the meaning of work--such as providing opportunities to develop skills and serving as a source of identity and control--be it paid work, unpaid domestic labor, and/or volunteer work.

As noted by Meyer (1988), the life course structure and the individual embedded within it are culturally constructed. Furthermore, it should be noted that certain factors such as one's gender may alter the cultural construction within the life course model. For example, given that the participants of this study are women of various ages, the discussion of typically-female life experiences such as empty nest and unpaid domestic labor are necessary to the understanding of women's motivation to work. Thus, in an effort to better reflect the work history and experiences common to women, the life course model presented by Cunningham and Brookbank (1988) is modified to include the main work role of unpaid domestic labor, and consequently, *empty nest*--which signifies the loss of a significant work role much like the "phasing out" or retirement stage--within the occupational transitions work cycle.¹ Though the life course "is neither simple nor rigidly prescribed," researchers have found considerable consensus among the human life transitions (Atchley, 1991: 115).

¹See Diagram 1.

DIAGRAM 1 THE LIFE COURSE PARADIGM¹



¹Life Course Paradigm is a modified version from Cunningham, W. and J. Brookbank: *Gerontology: The Physiology, Biology and Sociology of Aging*. New York: Harper & Row, 1988.

The utilization of a life course model introduces two closely related concepts which are central to this study: age-grading and age-stratification. *Age-grading* is "the extent to which career, employment, family, and schooling events are organized in time by age" (Sorensen, 1986: 183-184). *Age-stratification* represents "the age structure of roles and positions in the social structure" (Sorensen, 1986: 183-184). According to Sorensen (1986: 184), "the major events and transitions focused upon in studies of age-grading are movements into and out of major roles and positions in society."

In association with each transitional stage of the life course are age-stratified roles. Roles are expectations of behavior attached to positions with age as "a major criterion for allocating roles in society" (Eurich, 1981: 16). For example, the cultural practice of retiring from work near the age of 65 introduces a new role for the individual where different culturally constructed behavioral expectations are imposed upon the person by other members of society as well as by the individual him/herself. In addition, the individual learns via social interaction what are these role expectations. A second example of the impact of society on the individual is demonstrated by the recent posting of a flyer by the University of Windsor's Co-op Education and Student Placement Center which headlined, "Volunteers Make Better Employees!" This clearly signifies the behavioral expectations of career goals for the intended audience of university students who are preparing for a future career or paid work role.²

Having provided an introduction of the relationship between the one chosen key element of the sociocultural approach and the life course paradigm, an in-depth discussion with respect to this key element namely, the influence of cultural knowledge and practices upon an individual's motivation to volunteer, is provided. While the role of volunteer in and of itself may not be an age-related role, it is argued that particular expectations associated with the volunteer experience—such as an opportunity to gain job

²See Appendix B.

skills or to productively serve the community—are more prevalent among certain age groups than others, particularly in view of their current occupational standing in the life course scheme.

For the purposes of this study, the following age groups represent the transitional stages of life: young adulthood (15-24 years old); adulthood (25-39 years old); middle-age (40-59 years old); and older adulthood (60 years and older). Within this general age framework, the occupational transitions within the life course are the central areas of concentration for this study. There are three reasons for focusing on occupational transitions: (1) the belief that "in capitalist societies, the life-cycle as a whole is structured by the way work is organized relative to age" (O'Donnell, 1985: 10); (2) the recognition that there are numerous similarities between volunteer and other forms of work, such as providing opportunities to develop skills and social networks (Friedmann and Havighurst, 1977); and (3) the recognition that a high value is placed on work—which serves, perhaps, as the single most important "claim to status, prestige, power, and identity" in industrial capitalist societies (Haas and Shaffir, 1978: 33). Thus, it is argued that the characteristics and experiences of work which include unpaid domestic labor and volunteer activity are central to the understanding of why people are motivated to engage in volunteer activity.

The Functions and Meanings of Work

Perhaps the single greatest difference between employment and organizational volunteer work is the economic component of income. While modern industrial societies depend on money as a means to exchange goods and services, numerous studies have also demonstrated the importance of non-economic rewards derived from the workplace. For example, Friedmann and Havighurst (1977) list some of the meanings an individual may attribute to a job and demonstrate how these meanings may be related to the more universal functions of work, including volunteer work. Diagram 2 depicts Friedmann and Havighurst's (1977) illustration of the relation between the functions and meanings of

work. Although volunteer work involves a non-monetary compensation for a person's labors, the work function of income and its corresponding work meanings are relevant to the understanding of volunteerism in that volunteer work may be viewed as a vehicle in which an individual attempts to secure a future career or job and thus, provide a source of income.

The presentation of the functions and related meanings of work in Diagram 2 and most of the findings in earlier studies are based solely on paid male workers. This is not to say that earlier findings based solely on paid male workers are irrelevant for the purposes of this study. On the contrary, many of these studies and paradigms provide insights relevant to the study of how women may perceive their work activity. For example, Lowe and Northcott (1986) conducted a study of Canadian Postal Workers--in a unionized environment where job requirements and conditions were standard for everyone in a job classification--and concluded that both males and females who did the same work have very similar perceptions of their job, such as the degree of supervision and autonomy, the financial rewards, work intensity, and coworker or social support at work. And, as mentioned above, the functions and meanings of work (Diagram 2) represent the more universal aspects of work. Therefore, the inclusion of Friedmann and Havighurst's model (Diagram 2), although generated from paid male workers, is viewed as relevant and supportive of the researcher's goals.

Diagram 2: The Relation Between the Functions and Meanings of Work

<u>Work Function</u>	<u>Work Meaning</u>
1. Income	a) Maintaining a minimum sustenance level of existence. b) Achieving some higher level or group standard.
2. Expenditure of time and energy	a) Something to do b) Way of filling the day or passing time
3. Identification & Status	a) Source of self-respect b) Way of achieving recognition or respect from others c) Definition of role
4. Association	a) Friendship relations b) Peer-group relations c) Subordinate-superordinate relations
5. Source of meaningful life experience	a) Gives purpose to life b) Creativity; self-expression c) New experience d) Service to others

Diagram 2: The Relation between the Functions and Meanings of Work.
(From Friedmann, E. and R. Havighurst. *The Meaning of Work and Retirement*. New York, 1977, Arno Press.)

Most traditional theorists in the area of work addressed only paid labor. However, within recent decades, feminist theorists have challenged this narrow conception of work, arguing that it ignores much of the work that is actually done typically by women, and that the relationships between paid and unpaid work as well as the impacts of these relationships on workers' experiences and responses have been overlooked (Feldberg and Glenn, 1979). Through the feminist perspective, the literature on work has moved towards reconceptualizing work to be more inclusive, to include both paid and unpaid labor. Given that one's work experiences affects one's orientation towards work, the recognition of women and unpaid domestic labor is crucial to this thesis.

This thesis is based on two premises: (1) paid and unpaid labor (i.e., domestic labor and volunteer work) are all forms of work which share similar functions and meanings that can be theorized as forms of work within the life course framework and (2) gender, occupational class, and age-related factors are critical to understanding one's work experiences, particularly as they may relate to variations in the meanings and motivations of volunteers and their work. The following pages demonstrate that the functions and meanings commonly associated with paid labor are similarly associated with unpaid domestic and volunteer labor as well as discuss how gender, class, and age-related concepts of the life cycle model are significant to the kinds of meanings and motivations associated with work in general and more specifically, with volunteer work.

Several studies (Fagan, 1992; Gillespie and King I, 1985; Payne, 1977) in the area of volunteer research have identified some or all of the above-mentioned functions and meanings of work as being characteristic of volunteer work. For example, Friedmann and Havighurst's (1977: 7) study of paid workers—who identified that work serves the function of being a meaningful life experience—found that specific work meanings were associated with this function such as "work gives one purpose in life" and "work is a service to others." Similarly, researchers on volunteerism note that volunteerism also serves as a source of meaningful participation, "particularly for the older person who has

experienced role losses" (Fengler, 1984: 193). Volunteer activity can contribute to a feeling of usefulness, and for some, a way to be of service to others (Fagan, 1992; Gillespie and King I, 1985; Jenner, 1982; Smith, 1981). Thus, volunteer service and paid work are similar in that they are both understood as meaningful activities (Fengler, 1984).

Another example where volunteer work is similar to paid labor is evidenced in the work function of 'identification and status.' According to Friedmann and Havighurst's (1977: 7) study, people viewed their work as "a way of achieving recognition or respect from others." This view is mirrored in several studies of volunteer work (Fagan, 1992; Gillespie and King I, 1985; Payne, 1977). For example, Payne (1977) identified the steps in the development of a volunteer role including receiving community rewards and recognition. Haas and Shaffir (1978: 33) lend greater support with their discussion on the high value industrial capitalist societies place on work. They assert that "work is...perhaps the single most important claim to status, prestige, power, and identity." In fact, it is because industrial capitalist societies place a high value on work that self-respect and purpose are so strongly linked to work and why one's identity as a useful productive citizen involves having a job—even an unpaid one.

Just as researchers have studied job satisfaction and the functions and meanings of work among paid laborers, the meaning of housework has been similarly studied. In fact, many of the social psychological rewards associated with paid employment have also been associated with unpaid household labor. For example, in Rubin's (1976: 168) study of homemakers, one housewife was quoted as saying that her "husband [was] proud when she [cooked] good meals"—lending support to Friedmann and Havighurst's (1977: 191) claim that women have "gained their self-respect and respect of others through being good mothers and housekeepers," thus serving the work function of "identification and status." A second example where domestic labor serves the work function of identification is evident in the study by McRae (1986: 139) who found that the predominant pattern among working wives was that they "retained personal respon-

sibility for...all the domestic work as a matter of personal choice," concluding that "such work is *part of them* as women." In addition, Terkel's (1974) research found that housework was identified as a way to fill the day--a meaning associated with the work function of "expenditure of time and energy." As well Terkel's (1974) research revealed that housework may be viewed as a source of meaningful life experience as exemplified by one housewife's expression of satisfaction derived from pleasing her family by making them a homemade pie. A second example where housework may be viewed as a source of meaningful life experience, particularly as a means of self-expression and creativity, was demonstrated by one homemaker's claim that making her children's clothing provided her a "real creative outlet" (McRae, 1986: 73). Hence, functions and meanings commonly associated with paid work outside the home can be found in the home.

Overall, similar work functions and meanings are evident with respect to household labor and paid labor; however, some work functions and meanings may become increasingly more difficult to satisfy solely within the household context and consequently force women, particularly full-time housewives, to seek out other forms of work in order to satisfy these desires. Perhaps the most widely identified aspect thought to be lacking from the home as a workplace is one of association, particularly adult companionship (Ferree, 1980). For example, researchers have acknowledged that housework has become increasingly isolating, partially attributed to the decreasing size of private households, a decreasing number of neighborhood contacts, and an increase in individual home ownership (Ferree, 1980; Oakley, 1974). Thus it is reasonable that homemakers may seek volunteer involvement or a paid labor position for association purposes.

In addition, Ferree (1980) suggests that housework is becoming a culturally marginal activity in the presence of a majority of women who are employed in the work force as well as perform the bulk of domestic chores, and that this may contribute to a lower evaluation of the status and importance of the housewife role. This, in turn, may

lead to a desire among women to use their skills and establish an identity outside the home. One homemaker who was performing similar kinds of tasks in her volunteer involvement as at home stated that as a volunteer, she was seen as giving something, "rather than at home, where it is just taken for granted" (Mostyn, 1983: 55). Furthermore, the paid labor context may not allow one to establish the desired self-identity. For example, the helping behaviors of a paid worker may be discounted as "part of the job for which an individual is paid to do" in contrast to a more socially desirable identity of one who unselfishly devotes her time and care (Mostyn, 1983: 48). Therefore, volunteer work may be a source of a desired identity outside of the home or paid work force.

As these studies have documented, paid work, unpaid domestic work, and volunteer work are all forms of work which share similar meanings and functions. However, the research also demonstrates that work experiences and the meanings associated with that work are likely to vary based on gender, occupational class, and/or age-related factors. The following pages argue this point, specifically highlighting the impact of these factors upon one's volunteer work experiences and motivations.

The Influence of Gender

Historically, "the procreative abilities of women have separated them out of the production process for childbearing work" (Livingstone and Asner, 1996: 73). Such a division of labor meant that women were delegated the central responsibility of caregiving and childrearing among other related household tasks (Conner, 1992)--a form of caring labor that "involves emotional support, planning, and continual monitoring of others" (Acker 1988: 488). Even within the past few decades, when women's roles have altered to include their participation in the labor force as well as perform the majority of household labor, women continue to be largely trained in "areas which are extensions of traditional household tasks, such as teaching nursing and the like" (Hunter, 1986: 143; Robinson, 1988; Statistics Canada, 1994). Similarly, "women's volunteer involvement is closely linked to their role as mothers" (Chambre, 1987: 58). For example, women are

largely concentrated in volunteer work activities that emphasize direct client services such as providing care or friendly visiting and administrative support such as clerical or fundraising activities (Anderson and Moore, 1974; Statistics Canada, 1989). In contrast, Pold (1990) noted that male volunteers were largely concentrated within sports and recreational or economic and political organizations, generally performing such voluntary tasks as coaching, refereeing, judging, building, repairing, and serving as board members. Given that women continue to perform the bulk of the domestic labor—including caregiving labor—in the home and in their limited paid labor force experiences, it is reasonable to expect that women may predominantly be found in volunteer settings such as long-term care where the volunteer tasks mainly involve the provision of care and support. Thus, gender influences appear to shape women's work experiences in different ways than men.

The Role of Occupational Class³

Scholars have theorized and examined occupations in terms of a classification scheme where the central demarcation distinguishing between and within occupational categories is primarily determined by the differential degrees of autonomy, control, creativity, and social integration (Littler and Salaman, 1984). And there is considerable evidence (Dubin, 1992 and 1956; Orzack, 1959; Veltmeyer, 1986) that suggests that one's work experiences and the meanings associated with their work, vary by and within occupational classes. The following pages identify the elements that distinguish occupational classes and provide examples of how one's work experiences vary between and within the occupational categories.

Relative to the lower-skilled workers, the higher-skilled workers experience a greater degree of autonomy, control, creativity, and social integration within the work role or workplace⁴ (Veltmeyer, 1986). In contrast to the lower-skilled work class, the

³See Definition of Terms for more detail.

higher-skilled work class is characterized by extensive training, a considerable freedom with respect to their relations and conditions of work, substantial individual control over their skills as well as collective control (i.e., supervisory role), greater opportunities to exercise independent judgments, and a greater likelihood of integrated work groups and occupational communities developing (Veltmeyer 1986). On the other hand, members of the lower-skilled category may experience such things as control and social integration on the job. The level of experience is substantially less than that of the higher-skilled worker. For example, members of the lower-skilled work class may experience *control* in terms of being able to control the pace and order of work tasks, or may experience a more limited form of social integration such as exchanging small talk (Rubin, 1976; Veltmeyer, 1986).

Some evidence suggests that meanings of work are differentially valued by occupational class. For example, Orzack (1959) reports that only 9% of industrial workers value the workplace for friendship relations—a meaning associated with the work function "association"—in contrast to 45% of professionals. Dubin's (1992) more recent study of industrial workers, managers, and professionals continues to support that work and the meanings commonly associated with work are differentially valued by occupational class and concludes that these discrepancies are a result of the different work experiences and opportunities of the occupational classes. According to Dubin (1992), features of work that make it worthy of being a central life interest—including the opportunity for creative expression, personal responsibility, and personal accountability—are still present in the professional occupations but have been disappearing from other occupational categories. Therefore, it appears that workers of different occupational classes have different work experiences and are likely to value work differently.

⁴See Definition of Terms for more detail.

The above-stated fundamental qualities such as autonomy and control have also been utilized in noting variations within classes. Unlike the previous studies that generally compared men and women in different jobs or situations, Lowe and Northcott's (1986) study of Canadian Postal Workers had an opportunity to disentangle the effects of gender and job situation. Lowe and Northcott (1986: 80) studied mail sorters and mail carriers within a strongly unionized environment "where job requirements and conditions are standard for everyone in a [job] classification." Their findings suggest that certain occupation-based differences (i.e., the degree of autonomy and control) may help explain differences in the motivations of workers. According to Lowe and Northcott (1986), it was the comparison of two contrasting lower-skilled occupations with differential experiences of work, not gendered differences, that best explained the differences in the workers' motivations.

Given the above evidence and the earlier arguments paralleling the similar functions and meanings associated with paid, volunteer, and unpaid household labor, there is sufficient reason to explore the potential effects occupational class may have on one's motivation to volunteer.

The Influence of Age-Related Factors

Earlier, it was noted that the utilization of a life course model inherently introduces two closely related concepts, age-grading and age-stratification, and that the life course framework (Diagram 1) illustrates the distribution of age-graded life transitions and events. Thus, the following pages identify the age structure of roles and positions in society and the experiences common to those of a particular age group, as well as demonstrate how the different role expectations and experiences of the age groups are likely to lead to different meanings associated with work--in particular, volunteer work. First, an introduction to some of the cultural shifts and work-related

changes that women have and continue to experience over the course of the past several decades is provided which is critical to understanding age differences in the current context.

In the past several decades, noticeable shifts and changes have altered the cultural expectations and social roles for women. The employment patterns of women is one example of such a change. According to Chambre (1987), different work patterns for women emerged in the 1960s and accelerated in the 1970s. According to Ferree (1980), the cultural expectation for women was to work outside the home as well as maintain primary responsibility for the household labor. This is in contrast to the earlier cultural and social expectations for women to remain primarily in the home--a society that 77.3% of the oldest volunteers in this study grew up in and spent most of their lives. Statistics Canada (1994) reports substantial shifts have occurred in the employment patterns of women in different age groups from the mid-1970s to 1993. For example, in the mid-1970s, "women between the ages of 15-24 were more likely than older women to be working outside the home." In 1993, women between the ages of 25-54 were "the most likely to be employed" (Statistics Canada, 1994).

In addition to the overall changes and shifts in the employment patterns of women, changes in the nature of work, particularly in the paid work areas where women are generally concentrated, have occurred. One work area that has been particularly affected by change is the clerical work sector where workers, mainly women, have been "stripped of intellectual functions"--where skills have been degraded and work tasks routinized (Veltmeyer, 1986: 73). As early as the 1980s, it was noted that, "many of [the semi-professional] occupations [underwent] rapid changes in the nature of work" resulting in relatively little autonomy in their labor and a general loss of a supervisory role (Veltmeyer, 1986: 78).⁵

⁵Given that the changes to the semi-professional sector largely occurred in the mid-1980s

The final work-related change considered here is that of the educational requirements. Given that the educational system is largely responsible for preparing people for the paid work force, one's educational background is generally thought to be an important indicator of one's qualifications for a given work position. Therefore, as expected with the entry of a large proportion of women in the work force, the educational opportunities and experiences for women also changed. For example, Statistics Canada (1994) noted a sharp growth in the percentages of women with post-secondary qualifications between 1981-1993.

Therefore, given such changes and shifts in the work experiences and opportunities for women over time, one cannot assume that the expectations set forth for each age group are consistent through time. In other words, what is expected of today's 15-24 year olds is not the same as what was expected for today's 60 year olds when they were young adults in the 1950s. As a result, the study of women of various age groups at one point in time, particularly with respect to their work experiences, is difficult and complex.

The first chronological life stage of concern to this study is often referred to as young adulthood--those women who are 15-24 years of age. As noted earlier, the normative structures of young adulthood remain ill defined (O'Donnell, 1985: 123). It appears that only one dominant theme of the most recent literature emerges to shape the cultural expectations of this group: the preparation for work force participation (Atchley, 1991; Conner, 1992; Friedmann and Havighurst, 1977; Sorensen, 1986; Statistics Canada, 1994). With schools providing most of, if not all, the skills and knowledge required for entry into the work force for women of this age category, the

and that a majority of the semi-professionals in this study had retired or were nearly retired at the time of these changes, it is believed that categorizing the semi-professionals within the higher-skilled work class provides a more accurate account of their work experiences.

significant impact the educational system has in shaping the cultural expectations for this age group is virtually unquestionable. Thus, when schools began to emphasize the practical, realistic, and vocational aspects of preparing students for the labor force in the late 1960s and early 1970s, "volunteering for community service...had become accepted as a valid educational experience" (Hadley et al., 1975: 57). In fact, volunteering became a part of the curriculum and students would visit and help during school hours. In addition, the need for young adults to be well-prepared for their entry into the labor force is compounded by the economic downturns characteristic of the last decade. For example, the drop in women's labor force participation rate between the 1989-1993 was almost entirely accounted for by the decline of participation among 15 to 24 year old women (Statistics Canada, 1994). Thus, it appears that young adult women, who generally occupy the role of student and prepare for future work force positions, are likely to primarily view volunteering as an opportunity to gain marketable skills and career-related contacts.

The next life course stage is termed "adulthood" and includes those women within the ages of 25-39 years old. This stage represents perhaps the greatest responsibilities for women as they are likely to be balancing two of life's major transitions: family and work. As eluded to by Karp and Yoels (1982: 112), this stage usually marks a woman's full-time entry into the labor force. In addition, as the life course model (Diagram 1) illustrates, marriage and/or parenthood introduces new family responsibilities. Statistics Canada (1994: 6) reports a "very rapid growth in the labor force activity of married women, especially those with children." In fact, in 1993, 70% of women with children less than age 16 were in the labor force (Statistics Canada, 1994). Overall, women between the ages of 25-44 are the largest age group of females with full-time employment (Statistics Canada, 1994: 17). Karp and Yoels (1982: 107) also note that "many women delay entry into the labor force until after their kids are at least school age," thus they "enter school and then an occupation from mid-30s to early 40s." The

combination of having to deal with the responsibilities of paid employment and domestic work is called "the double burden of women" and according to Williams (1988: 18), may explain the lower participation rates in volunteer work among full-time employed married women with young children. More importantly, these women who occupy two highly valued cultural roles of worker and domestic laborer are likely to have a greater sense of identity, status, prestige, and power derived from their work roles. As a result, they may be the least likely to participate in organizational volunteer activity. However, studies by Demos (1975) and Chambre (1987) suggest that these women do participate in volunteer activities--those activities that deal with children.

The stage known as middle-age (40-59 years old) typically marks the beginning of a decline in some important social roles (Atchley, 1991). Women in this age group are likely to experience *empty nest*--a loss of childrearing obligations--or a phasing out in their occupational career leading to retirement, or both (Atchley, 1991). Such changes imply a loss of some significant social roles and likely, the loss of the woman's sense of identity and social status. Furthermore, the loss or reduction of a woman's work role (empty nest or phasing out/retirement), particularly "in a society that continues to place a high value on work and productivity,...may be seen as a negative social role" (Conner, 1992: 67). According to Atchley (1991), such losses may result in women entering or re-entering the work force, changing jobs, or increasing their community involvement (volunteer activity)--to ultimately regain or replace a sense of identity and social status .

Although middle-aged women may experience many social losses, a "noticeable decline in the size of everyday social environment" is experienced by women 60 years and older (Atchley, 1991: 8). Women during this period of their life are faced with the deaths of friends and family members, particularly the death of their spouse.

"Traditionally-oriented women, where the role of wife is central to life," often find widowhood to represent "the loss of a person best able to support their concept of self in terms of their personal qualities" (Atchley, 1991: 249). In addition, working women now

find themselves occupying the role of retiree (generally between the ages of 55-70) where one of the societal expectations is to avoid full-time employment (Atchley, 1991; Chambre, 1987). Therefore, unlike middle-aged women, women 60 and over are discouraged from remaining in the work force and as a result, their opportunities to maintain a sense of identity, status, and prestige are fewer. However, volunteerism is often viewed as a way for these women to restore or maintain meaningful lives in a work-oriented society (Chambre, 1987). In fact, Atchley (1991: 208) claims that society expects the person to carry over the skills, experience, knowledge, and identity one had with one's job or positions and "provide free service to one's community." Conner (1992: 72) noted that "serving on voluntary boards...or volunteering at the local long-term care facility provides retired people with productive activities to pursue...." Similarly, Sherrott (1983) argued that volunteering may serve to compensate for role losses in other areas of life, such as retirement from paid or unpaid domestic labor. Therefore, women who are within the transitional work phase of "retirement" or "empty nest" are more likely to engage in volunteer work.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

Having established a theoretical argument and basis for logical reasoning, this study will test the following hypotheses and research questions with respect to volunteers in long-term care settings:

Central Hypothesis:

Older women are more likely to list internal rewards as reasons why they volunteer than younger women.

** Older women are those 60 years and older. Younger women are those between the ages 15-24 years old.

**** Internal rewards consists of social affiliation (such as identification, status, and association) and value expression (source of meaningful life experiences). Career-related reasons consist of those dealing with education, skills and training, and the like.⁶**

Secondary Hypothesis:

Younger adult women primarily identify career-related rewards as reasons why they volunteer.

Sub-hypotheses:

Older women are likely to engage in volunteer tasks similar to those performed in their main work position (paid or unpaid).

Female volunteers in the "adulthood" stage of their life course are the least represented.

**** Women in the "adulthood" stage are those who are 25-39 years old.**

Given that the previous sections have demonstrated that paid work and volunteer work share similar functions and meanings and that there is evidence to support that one's motivation to work (among paid workers) varies by occupational class, the following research questions regarding the relationship between occupational class and motivation to perform volunteer work is explored.

Research Questions:

Does occupational class significantly influence one's motivation(s) to volunteer? If so, how?

⁶See Reliability and Validity for more detail.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

The following section describes the sampling procedures as well as the method of data collection employed for the purposes of this study. In addition, a variety of reliability and validity checks were conducted to minimize the potential negative effects of the research method and to support the claim that the methodological tool used is appropriate given the level and nature of information desired. Statistical procedures and scales are also described, followed by a brief discussion of the ethical considerations undertaken in this study. First, a brief introduction to some of the terms utilized in this paper.

Definition of Terms

Long-term care settings are those facilities that "provide treatment, care, and support for people whose needs cannot be met appropriately, safely or effectively in their own homes. This service component includes nursing homes, homes for the aged, and chronic care services" (Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services, Ministry of Health, Office for Senior Citizens' Affairs, and Office for Disabled Persons, 1990: 19).

Volunteers are those individuals who provide their time (at least an average of four hours per month) and/or services to the organization without receiving monetary compensation in return. The provision of an average of at least four hours per month is employed for the purpose of selecting out the *occasional* type of volunteer whose involvement is relatively infrequent, such as the one event per year person (i.e., Christmas Party). By including only the *regularly involved* volunteers, volunteer coordinators may be more assured that the changes they may make to their current practices will likely be made within a stable volunteer environment.

Major characteristics include the following traits previously measured in similar volunteer studies: age, marital status, educational attainment, and labor force status (Gillespie and King I, 1985; Statistics Canada, 1991).

Occupational class includes three main categories: students (those preparing for the work force), higher-skilled workers, and lower-skilled workers. The division of work sectors into lower-skilled and higher-skilled classes are based on Veltmeyer's (1986) work. The lower-skilled work category includes the office and sales sector, the service sector, the manufacturing sector, the agricultural sector (non-owners), and homemakers. In contrast, higher-skilled work is comprised of the semi-professional, professional, managerial, and independent commodity production sectors (i.e., independent farmers).⁷

In this occupational class scheme, (unpaid) homemakers are classified in the lower-skilled work category. If one were to replace an unpaid homemaker with paid workers, one is likely to hire a cook, a cleaning person, a laundry person (laundress), a nanny/baby sitter, a clerical worker—all of whom represent lower-skilled workers. Thus, the unpaid homemaker is most similar to the kinds of jobs found in lower-skilled work areas and is placed within the category of lower-skilled workers accordingly.

Sampling Procedures

For the purposes of this study, volunteers from homes for the aged and the chronic care floor of the local hospital were sampled. The Ministry of Health's Long-Term Care Area office forwarded a 1994 listing of homes for the aged within the Windsor and Essex County. In light of the definition of long-term care settings⁸ and the relatively small population of female volunteers within the four identified homes for the aged, volunteers with the chronic care unit of the local hospital also participated in this study. To ensure that the hospital and home for the aged settings were similar, the volunteer coordinators of the sites were asked to review the questionnaire's measure of volunteer tasks for accuracy. Volunteer coordinators of these sites confirmed that the types of volunteer tasks identified in the questionnaire accurately reflected their volunteer setting. As well,

⁷See Appendix D for list of occupations within the work sectors.

⁸See Definition of Terms.

volunteer coordinators similarly described their volunteers with respect to the major social demographic characteristics tested in this study, presenting a typical volunteer profile of an older, married, and retired female. Finally, the resident population within these long-term care settings were found to be similar in terms of physical and cognitive abilities. Based on the above information, the long-term care settings sampled in this study are comparable.

Due to insufficient representation of female volunteers at each individual site, particularly with respect to the central focus of varying age representation, a meaningful comparative analysis between long-term care organizations is not possible. Therefore, the study predominantly focuses upon the combined volunteer representation of all the sites.

According to the volunteer coordinators of the four local homes for the aged and Windsor Regional Hospital-Metropolitan Campus, approximately 190 volunteers are actively involved at these long-term care sites in the Windsor/Essex County. Within this population, there is an estimate of 20 volunteers who are male. Due to the small number of male volunteers and the likelihood that all 20 may not be available (i.e., on vacation, ill) or willing to participate in this study, the sample of this study includes only female participants.

Questionnaires were distributed to the population of 170 female long-term care volunteers. A total of 105 volunteers completed and returned the questionnaire, thus suggesting a fairly successful return rate of 61.8%. Volunteer coordinators have collectively confirmed that the age distribution of the female participants in this study is proportionately similar to the overall age distribution of the population of female volunteers. In general, the profile of a "typical volunteer" in these long-term care settings is a married woman in her mid-sixties with adult children, who is retired from a lower-skilled work position and who has a high school diploma.

Rationale For Study Design

Given the exploratory and descriptive goals for the ensuing study, a questionnaire method containing both open and close-ended questions is an appropriate data collection tool. The strengths of the questionnaire method as compared to interviewing methods include the following: relatively inexpensive, quicker, greater sample size potential, and greater potential for accurate responses due to confidentiality. Although an interview method may be more likely to produce in-depth responses, some open-ended style questions have been incorporated into the survey design in order to provide the respondent with the opportunity to express in their own words (and provide the researcher with a greater insight into) the meanings and experiences of their volunteer and paid work. In addition, the in-person distribution of the questionnaire along with the display of a poster announcing the upcoming study were accomplished in an effort to maximize the number of returned, completed surveys. Thus, reasonable efforts were taken to minimize the disadvantages of the survey method.

Administration of Questionnaire

A poster announcing the upcoming study was displayed at each long-term care facility. The poster included the following information: an estimate of the time involved in filling out a questionnaire, a message stating the importance of their participation to the study of volunteerism, and some relevant background information on the researcher.

A questionnaire⁹ predominantly containing close-ended style questions was distributed in person by the volunteer coordinator to the selected and willing volunteers. Those few volunteers who were not available during regular business hours (i.e., week-end volunteers, on vacation) were contacted by phone and mailed a questionnaire or given one in person by another long-term care employee. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire to introduce the researcher, the topic of study, and other pertinent

⁹See Appendix B for questionnaire and rationale of survey questions.

information as well as assure the participants that their responses will be held in confidence (Fink and Kosecoff, 1985).¹⁰

Participants were encouraged to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher within a two-week period. A numerical code was employed to indicate who may need to be contacted for a follow-up questionnaire. Those participants who failed to complete and return the survey during the allotted time period were approached by the volunteer coordinator to determine the need for distribution of a follow-up questionnaire. This, in addition to providing a self-addressed stamped envelope, was done in an effort to ensure a high response rate. The final date completed questionnaires were accepted for inclusion in the study's analysis was approximately six weeks starting from the day the initial questionnaire was administered.

Measurement of Volunteer Motivations and Tasks

The dependent variable, motivations, represents two major classifications: internal and career-related rewards. A theoretical framework is used to determine the most appropriate classification (career or internal) of each specified reason.¹¹ For each respondent, a count of the number of career-related motives identified and a count of the number of internal motives identified (with respect to the total number of reasons each respondent identified) were tabulated to determine which of the two motivation categories an individual would be placed.

A second variable, volunteer tasks, is assessed in a similar fashion. Each specific volunteer task is evaluated on the basis of its primary orientation: client-orientation or organization-orientation.¹² A count is tabulated for the number of client-oriented tasks and the number of organization-oriented tasks performed by each volunteer (with respect to the total number of tasks identified by the individual).

¹⁰See Appendix B.

¹¹See Validity section for more details.

¹²See Validity section for more details.

A majority of the respondents identified multiple volunteer tasks including tasks from the two different orientations. As well, nearly 30% did not differentiate their primary from their occasional tasks. As a result, the primary orientation of the respondent's volunteer work was assessed in terms of the majority of volunteer tasks identified within a particular orientation with respect to the total number of tasks performed. Therefore, volunteers who identified a majority of client-focused tasks from the total number of tasks they performed were evaluated as being "more client-oriented." Likewise, those identifying a majority of organization-focused tasks were considered "more organization-oriented." Lastly, those identifying an equal number of client and organization-focus tasks were labeled "equally client and organization-oriented."

Reliability

The variables *motivation* and *volunteer tasks* are particularly susceptible to reliability and validity threats due to their more abstract conceptualization. In contrast, the more concrete constructs, such as the independent variables like age and marital status, are less susceptible to reliability and validity problems. Therefore, the reliability and validity concerns of the measures regarding volunteer motivations and tasks are addressed in this paper.

Reliability "is the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials" (Carmines and Zeller, 1979: 11). Two processes were utilized in an effort to assess the reliability of the questionnaire: a test-retest procedure and a comparison of this study's findings to the results of earlier studies that employed the same measures. The test-retest procedure estimates the stability of the survey (Fink and Kosecoff, 1985). This type of reliability may be accomplished by noting if someone completing the questionnaire answers similarly on more than one occasion (Fink and Kosecoff, 1985). Ten individuals, consisting of available female college students and older adults who were currently volunteering for a long-term care organization, were used to pretest the questionnaire. The survey was administered to the

same ten individuals on two separate occasions--approximately one week apart. Upon the completion and return of the pretested questionnaire, an informal group interview was held to gain feedback from the group regarding their opinions as to the perceived weaknesses of the questionnaire. The following two paragraphs summarize the test-retest results.

The ten individuals' responses in trial #1 were nearly identical to their responses in trial #2. The question addressing one's educational achievement, financial situation, and caregiving situation produced some inconsistencies among the older respondents, although largely by the same person. As a whole, 90% of the pretesters provided responses to these questions that were consistent from one trial to the next. Also, the rating question measuring motivation had two instances of inconsistent responses where the responses varied by one in each case--a finding not believed to be uncommon. Eighty percent of the pretesters were in agreement with respect to the question rating the importance of using skills and experience. All the other reasons listed in the rating question received 100% agreement among the pretesters from trial #1 and trial #2. Some inconsistencies were also found among the rank-order questions regarding the volunteer tasks performed and one's motivation for volunteering. Overwhelmingly, the same tasks and reasons were identified in both trials. However, the rank order was inconsistent among three individual pretesters, by a matter of one rank. With respect to the rank ordering of tasks, 90% of the pretesters were consistent in their responses. In the case of rank ordering motivations, 80% of the pretesters demonstrated consistency from trial #1 to trial #2 and the two pretesters with inconsistent responses had interchanged their rank for "helping others" and "to contribute to the community" from trial #1 to trial #2. As noted by Fink and Kosecoff (1985), in dealing with human subjects, repeated measurements of the same phenomenon may vary because people change. In light of this, and the infrequent number and narrow range of inconsistencies among rank order data, the measures demonstrate a fairly high level of reliability.

Although the pretesters were asked to comment on a variety of potentially weak areas of the questionnaire such as the overall clarity of individual questions and areas of biases, relatively few comments that addressed weaknesses of the questionnaire were voiced by the members of the pretest group. The following changes were made as a direct result of the feedback obtained from the pretesters: enlargement and darkening of the directions, and addition or modification of response categories for some questions on one's volunteer experiences. For example, some women suggested that the volunteer task of helping in the gift shop should be added. And some women stated that they initially missed some of the directions. Therefore, the amended questionnaire is believed to be stable.

Some questions, particularly those measuring the concepts of motivation and volunteer tasks utilized in this study are modeled from other studies. The reliability of these questions is confirmed by comparing the current study's findings to those of the earlier studies (Brewer and Hunter, 1989). The comparison of findings is not expected to be exact—due to a number of reasons such as a difference in the definition of the term *volunteer* or a modification in the number of close-ended choices. However, evidence of consistency helps to reconfirm that it is a reliable measure whereas contradictory findings suggests it is a less reliable measure.

Overall, the results of the questions measuring volunteer motivations and volunteer tasks are consistent with other studies (Anderson and Moore, 1974; Fagan, 1992; Gillespie and King I, 1985; Statistics Canada, 1989) on volunteer motivations and tasks. The questions regarding volunteer tasks and rating of volunteer motivations were modeled from Statistics Canada's (1989) "Survey of Volunteer Activity" and this study's results were similar to those reported by Statistics Canada (1989). Chart 1 illustrates the results between Statistics Canada's (1989) findings and the findings of this study.

Chart 1: Comparison of Results: Percent of Vounteers Rating Motivations
as Somewhat/Very Important

MOTIVATION TO VOLUNTEER	STATS CANADA	THIS STUDY
Meeting People/Companionship	74%	74%
To Use Skills and Experience	78%	75%
Helping Others	92%	100%
To Do Something/ Doing Something One Likes To Do	86%	64%

According to Chart 1, an equal percentage of volunteers (74%) identified "meeting people/companionship" as being somewhat or very important and a nearly equal percentage of persons in each study identified "to use my skills and experience" and "to help others." Even the response categories which were worded somewhat differently, such as "to do something" (64%) and "doing something one likes to do" (86%) yielded fairly consistent results. In addition, the volunteer task areas most commonly identified by the women in this study such as friendly visiting and activities were also among the most commonly identified task areas for women in Statistics Canada's (1989) report. Due to the potential influence of setting and gender, the comparison of the results regarding volunteer tasks and motivations were not expected to be exact. Given this, these measures are believed to be reliable.

The rank-order question measuring why one volunteers produced results similar to those found in Gillespie and King I's (1985) study. For example, in Gillespie and King I's (1985) study, the reason "to help others" was identified by 70% of the sample as compared to 89.5% of this study's volunteer population. "To contribute to the community" yielded 57.5 % and 50.5%, respectively. Some differences were noted with respect to the reasons "to make new friends" and "to obtain skills and training." However, as discussed in a later section of this paper, these reasons appear to vary by age. Such discrepancies are likely suggesting the effects of the varied age compositions of the volunteers in these two studies rather than an unreliable measure. Therefore, the rank-

order question regarding volunteer motivations appears consistent with Gillespie and King I's (1985) findings.

Validity

Validity "is evidenced by the degree that a particular indicator measures what it is supposed to measure rather than reflecting some other phenomenon" (Carmines and Zeller, 1979: 16). Several types and subtypes of validity have been identified in the literature. Due to the quantitative nature of this study and the inherent limitations identified by Carmines and Zeller (1979) of assessing content validity for an abstract concept such as *motivation* or *work tasks*, only construct and concurrent validity are addressed.

Construct Validity

Construct validity "is the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the concepts (or constructs) that are being measured" (Carmines and Zeller, 1979: 23). The threat to construct validity lies in the relationship between the measure of an abstract concept and the theoretical expectations.

Two approaches were used to maximize construct validity. First, many of the same terms regarding volunteer motivation and tasks outlined in the literature were used in the questionnaires. Second, feedback from the pretest sample was gathered regarding the formulation of the questions designed to tap motivation and tasks to ensure that similar interpretations were shared among respondents. The former is demonstrated by the use of terms such as "to make new friends, to explore a career possibility, performing/entertaining, and friendly visiting" in the questionnaire. These terms have been extracted from the volunteer literature (Gillespie and King I, 1985; Statistics Canada, 1989).

A consensus was achieved from the pretesting group regarding their interpretations and general understanding of the questions designed to tap the motivations and task

areas of volunteering. Many stated they believed the motivation questions to be redundant, suggesting that the two questions measuring motivations were similarly perceived. As well, the feedback from the older and younger volunteers suggests that each group recognized different motivation orientations, with a greater recognition of the more instrumental reasons. For example, the list of various career-related motives like "to gain more skills and training" and "to obtain school credit" appeared to stimulate some older adult volunteers to express their disappointment and disapproval that younger volunteers tend to be more interested in the more self-serving kinds of reasons. The younger volunteers stated that an important reason to add to the list of responses was the career-related motive "for my resume." As expected, there was consensus among the pretesters with respect to the interpretation of the volunteer task areas identified in the questionnaire. The general consensus demonstrated among the individuals regarding the motivation and task measures provided evidence in support of construct validity.

Classification Scheme for Tasks

The categorization scheme of specific volunteer tasks (or paid work positions) were divided into two main categories, client-focused and organization-focused tasks. *Client-focused tasks* are dependent upon the inherent nature of the task (or primary objective of the work position) in providing direct client service (Anderson and Moore, 1974). The volunteer tasks identified in this study that are classified as being client-oriented/patient-oriented include: feeding, teaching, providing or assisting with a religious service, entertaining, friendly visiting, looking after the personal needs of a clients, assisting or coordinating in social or group activities for patients, and providing transportation services for patients. Work positions that primarily involve direct services to clients include: nurses, health technologists, social or recreation workers, teachers, personal service workers, food service workers (i.e., waitresses), and private household workers (i.e., baby sitters).

Organization-focused tasks are the administrative-type services where the central concern is with the operation of the organization rather than the direct care of the client (Anderson and Moore, 1974). Anderson and Moore (1974: 55) describe the functions of such positions as being "somehow associated chiefly with paper or money...." The volunteer tasks classified as organization-oriented include: fundraising, office work/ bookkeeping, gift shop service or selling items, sitting as a board member, and "other" miscellaneous tasks identified by the respondents such as decorating, watering plants, and stocking linen carts. The main work positions considered primarily organization-focused include the following: clerical and sales workers, managers, cleaning service workers, agricultural workers, and factory workers.

Classification Scheme for Motivations

The volunteer motivation scheme consists of two major categories of volunteers, those who are *more career-oriented* and those who are *more internally-oriented*. To determine this, individual volunteers are classified according to their identification of a majority of career-related or internal-related reasons for volunteering where it is assumed that the career-related and internal-related reasons reflect the individual's desire for career-related and internal rewards, respectively. The challenge to construct validity is largely contained within the relationship between the indicators of the rewards (reasons for volunteering) and the theoretical network that encompasses the rewards.

Katz and Kahn (1978: 335) identified two central reasons why a person engages in work: (1) "because it is instrumental to other objectives" and (2) "it gives gratification in itself." These two central reasons serve as the basis for distinguishing two types of rewards, external and internal, respectively. All the external rewards identified in this study of long-term care volunteers are related to the volunteer's employment, either past, present or anticipated; as a result, the more specific term *career-oriented*, defined by the career-related motivations, is used in place of the term *externally-oriented*.

Those motivations identified as career-related include: to obtain skills and training, to explore a career, to use skills and experience, to fulfill a course requirement or school credit, to establish potential career contacts, for admission into post-secondary education, and for [my] resume. Perhaps the most ambiguous motivation of these is "to use [my] skills and experience." However, evidence in support of this classification is found in both the literature and in volunteer responses. For example, in Sherrott's (1983) study of volunteers, some people used volunteering as a substitute for employment--largely because retirement or family obligations prevented employment--and volunteering represented an opportunity to continue utilizing their skills. Likewise, one volunteer in this study, a former nurse, confirmed this interpretation by stating that she chose volunteer work when she no longer wanted to "be tied to a full-time job" and that volunteering provided the opportunity to use her skills. Therefore, it is believed that an instrumental orientation underlies the motivation "to use one's skills."

According to Katz and Kahn (1978: 361), sources of internal motivation are largely found in "behaviors that are expressions of self or its central values." Katz and Kahn (1978) identified three broad categories of such expressions:

- 1) *value expression and self-identification*--expressing important values through one's actions, thereby identifying oneself and maintaining a satisfying concept of self;
- 2) *self-expression*--making decisions and showing what one can do; and
- 3) *affiliative expression*--"identifying with significant others as part of a larger whole" (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 361).

Six of the volunteer motivations identified in this study represent behaviors that are expressions of self or of one's central values. The internal motivations include: to help others, to contribute to the community, to make new friends, to fulfill religious obligations, to do something, and to give (a sense of) purpose to my life. The following paragraphs identify the behaviors and related meanings associated with each of these

motivations, providing the theoretical support for their categorization as internal reasons for volunteering.

Helping others, contributing to the community, and volunteering as an expression of religious beliefs are closely related concepts which represent helping behaviors. According to Sherrott's (1983: 74) study of volunteers, these reasons for volunteering are grounded in moral and normative explanations that are based on what is considered right or proper and "is itself central to the reward." As one volunteer expressed in a study by Mostyn (1983), doing something for someone else makes one a better person.

Sherrott (1983) identified two broad categories of volunteers: the natural helpers and noblesse oblige. According to Sherrott (1983), the natural helping system represents a form of volunteering that resembles a way of neighborhood or small community living where care is provided and its reciprocation is anticipated. Sherrott (1983) also described another form of volunteering, noblesse oblige, that is based on the norm of social duty. This norm stresses the belief that the rural elite have a social duty to help those less fortunate in their neighborhood. And similar to the natural helping system, noblesse oblige involves a reciprocal element in which the elite are expected to give back (in a general sense) for the good fortune life has bestowed upon them. Therefore, in keeping with the value expression and self-identification category identified by Katz and Kahn (1978), it appears that the act of helping contributes to one's self-identification and helps maintain a satisfying self-image.

It should be noted that the motivation "to help others" may represent either of these two forms of volunteering discussed above. "To contribute to the community," on the other hand, is believed to represent the noblesse oblige type of helper given that the rank-order question on motivation suggested the notion of a sense of moral duty beside the close-ended response of "to contribute to the community." Therefore, "to contribute to the community" is likely a dimension of the larger and more general desire "to help others."

Sherrott (1983: 76) found that volunteers generally expressed "a desire to become identified or integrated with the neighborhood or a particular group of people" and companionship rather than a type of friendship that extended beyond the volunteer context. It is this affiliative expression that identifies the volunteer motivation "to make new friends" within the internal realm of motivations.

The reason "to do something," identified as a volunteer motivation in some earlier studies (Gillespie and King I, 1985; Statistics Canada, 1989), does not sufficiently convey a specific meaning from which to determine their appropriate classification. However, some volunteers interviewed in Sherrott's (1983: 74) study elaborated on the motivation "to do something" where the general desire expressed was "to do something useful,... something that is intrinsically satisfying, ...something which is not entirely for myself." And, as noted by Mostyn (1983: 39), a defining component of voluntary work is that it is "something that is of use to the community...." Similar meanings were associated with the reason "to do something" among the respondents in this study. One woman stated that volunteering "makes [her] feel useful." Another volunteer claimed that "doing something for someone else makes [her] feel good." And a third volunteer indicated that "volunteering has kept [her] busy and...fulfilled for many years." Based on these findings, it appears that the words "to do something" are more accurately identifying the act of doing something useful, and that the meaning associated with this behavior is one of personal (intrinsic) satisfaction. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, "to do something" is recognized in this sense and thus classified as an internal motivation.

The final motivation considered is identified in the literature as "to give purpose to one's life." Although it is clear that volunteer work provides the volunteer with a sense of purpose, the specific act is unclear. It may be the opportunity volunteering provides for self-expression, as defined by Katz and Kahn (1978), or an expression of a central value. In any case, the motivation is recognized for its internal orientation and is categorized as such.

Concurrent Validity

A subtype of criterion validity, concurrent validity, is "assessed by correlating a measure and the criterion at the same point in time" (Carmines and Zeller, 1979: 18). Concurrent validity is selected as opposed to predictive validity (which suggests who is likely to become a volunteer) because the proposed study intends to measure persons currently involved in volunteer work and their reason(s) for volunteering. Therefore, the study describes and explains the individuals who are currently volunteering at long-term care organizations rather than predicting who will be the future volunteers in long-term care. As noted earlier, a potential threat of validity may be in the formulation of the measures and the criterion selected to tap the concept. Given that more than one question was designed to measure the concept motivation, a correlation of the two close-ended motivation questions was calculated to address the issue of concurrent validity. Thus, the following corresponding measures of the rank-ordered question regarding motivations were correlated with their comparable motivation measures in the rating question: "to make new friends" & "meeting people/companionship"; "to do something" & "doing something with your spare time"; "to help others" & "being of service to others"; and "to use my skills and experience" & "using my skills and experience."

A basic pattern is expected in the correlation of the ranking question and the rating question such that a higher concentration of respondents who rank a particular reason within the top five also rate that reason as "very important" or to a lesser extent, "somewhat important." Conversely, a higher concentration of respondents who do not identify a reason within the top five are expected to rate that reason as "not at all important" or "not too important." Although the correlation measures illustrated in Chart 2 indicate weak measures of association among the paired reasons for volunteering, the findings from the cross-tabulations follow the basic pattern of expected responses, suggesting that both questions are measuring the same dimension.

Chart 2: Correlation of Rating & Ranking Questions on Motivation

Reason for Volunteering (Rating Question)	Reason for Volunteering (Rank Order Question)	Correlation Coefficient
Meeting People/ Companionship	To Make New Friends	.263
Using My Skills & Experience	To Use My Skills & Experience	.348
Doing Something with Your Spare Time	To Do Something (Meaningful)	.322
Being of Service to Others	To Help Others	.016

It is believed that the weak correlations may be reflecting the more inferior formulation of the rating question as compared to the rank-order question. For example, the rank-order question requires more thought and careful consideration for a response to one motivation is dependent on the other, suggesting that there is a consequence of assigning a specific rank. In contrast, one's response to a single motivation in the rating question is independent of the responses to the other motivations, suggesting that there are no consequences for one's actions. This is perhaps best illustrated by the contradictory findings where some respondents who ranked a reason within the top five, rated the same reason as "not at all important," suggesting that some respondents may have simply checked off a rating with little thought to the question. In fact, 13.3% of the respondents marked the same response for all eight of the reasons listed in the rating question, suggesting the possibility of a response bias situation. In addition, a substantial proportion of the older volunteers did not provide a response to several of the motivations within the rating question which severely limits the interpretive power of the findings.

Chart 3: Comparison of Rank-Order and Rating Statistics on Motivation by Age Group

	<u>Rank-Order Stats</u>		<u>Rating Stats</u>		<u>Missing Values</u>	
VOLUNTEER REASONS	Phi	P-Value	Phi	P-Value	Rank-Order	Rating Question
Helping Others	.192	.073	.093	.393	0	2
Meeting People/ To Make Friends	.172	.109	.164	.567	0	12
Using Skills	.013	.899	.319	.062	0	15

Having calculated the phi and p-value statistics for both measures of motivation with respect to age, Chart 3 illustrates that the rank-order question provides stronger and more stable results compared to the rating question. In addition, the rating question had a substantial amount of missing values whereas the rank-order question did not have any, creating concern as to whether the results accurately reflect the entire sampled age groups. Given these problematic issues related to the rating question on volunteer motivations, the study focuses largely upon the rank-order and open-ended questions regarding volunteer motivations.

Classification of Volunteers with Respect to Motivations¹³

The ranking system was originally employed to detect variations in the relative importance certain volunteer motivations had for an individual volunteer. Respondents were asked to rank their top five reasons for volunteering because the distinction between a rank of #1 and a rank of #5 suggests a reasonable difference in the relative level of importance between a #1 reason and a #5 reason. However, a large number (46) of respondents did not recognize five reasons and several older respondents only identified their reasons for volunteering without ranking them in order. To accommodate these

¹³See Classification Scheme for Motivations for categorization of internal and career-related motivations. Other methods of categorizing were considered such as factor analysis and employing a stricter demarcation for inclusion into the "more career-oriented" and the "more internal-oriented." However, the data available did not allow for a stricter analysis than the one chosen.

problems, the data for this measure were largely analyzed in terms of "within top five" and "not within the top five." Having resolved the issue in this manner, it was possible to demonstrate the relative importance of the motivations among the older and younger volunteers as well as retain the substantial number of older volunteers who merely *identified* their reasons for volunteering.

The division of volunteers into the "more career-oriented" category was accomplished by grouping those who identified three or more of their five reasons as career-related and a similar procedure established those who were "more internal-oriented."¹⁴ However, an additional concern arose for those respondents who identified less than five reasons for volunteering: the potential for misclassification into the "more internal" or "more career-oriented" categories. In comparison to those who ranked five reasons, respondents who ranked less than five reasons have less indicators to determine their classification, making them more susceptible to misclassification. To address this concern of misclassification, the following tables are constructed to identify the number of volunteers who may be misclassified, in what categories these respondents are classified, and the extent to which a misclassification of respondents may have occurred in comparison to the original classification results.

TABLE 1: CLASSIFICATION STATUS OF VOLUNTEERS:
REASONS by AGE GROUP

CLASSIF. STATUS	AGE GROUP				TOTALS
	15-24	25-39	40-59	60 & Older	
Potentially Misclassified 1/1, 1/2; 2/2; 1/3; 2/3	1	0	2	16	19
Not Misclassified	20	3	13	50	86
TOTALS	21	3	15	66	105

¹⁴See Classification Scheme for Volunteer Motivations section.

Table 1 illustrates the relationship of those who identified less than five reasons for volunteering within each age group. As Table 1 demonstrates, not all of the respondents who identified less than five reasons are considered *potentially* misclassified. In fact, only 18.1% of the respondents may be potentially misclassified. Take for example a respondent who identified three of four reasons as internal. Identifying a fifth reason, even a career-related reason, would not alter her original internally-oriented assessment for a majority of her reasons remain internal (3:5). On the other hand, respondents susceptible to misclassification are those with the following volunteer reason ratios: 1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 2:2, and 2:3. In other words, if they were to identify a total of five reasons, it is possible that the additional reasons ranked by these respondents may alter their original classification, thus indicating that they may be inaccurately assigned to either the "more career-oriented" or "more internal-oriented" categories.

TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF THE POTENTIALLY MISCLASSIFIED by AGE GROUP

CATEGORY ASSIGNED	AGE GROUP				TOTALS
	15-24	25-39	40-59	60 & OLDER	
MORE CAREER- ORIENTED	0	0	0	0	0
MORE INTERNAL- ORIENTED	1	0	2	16	19
TOTALS	1	0	2	16	19

According to Table 2, all of those "potentially misclassified" volunteers were categorized among the "more internally-oriented" group and nearly all (16) of them were members of the 60 years and older age group.

TABLE 3: "WORST CASE SCENARIO": REASON* by AGE GROUP

RE- ASSIGNED CATEGORY	AGE GROUP				TOTALS
	15-24	25-39	40-59	60 & OLDER	
MORE CAREER- ORIENTED	17 81%	2 66.7%	3 20%	16 24.2%	38 36.2%
MORE INTERNAL- ORIENTED	4 19%	1 33.3%	12 80%	50 75.8%	67 63.8%
TOTALS	21 20%	3 2.8%	15 14.3%	66 62.9%	105 100%

*With Potentially Misclassified Re-assigned to Alternate Group
 CHI-SQUARE= 21.81
 CRAMER'S PHI= .207
 MISSING VALUE= 0

Table 3 illustrates the "worst case scenario" (assuming all of the 19 potentially misclassified individuals were misclassified). The "worst case scenario" demonstrates the effects of the relationship between age group and volunteer reasons with those potentially misclassified redistributed into the alternative category of "more career-oriented." The findings of the "worst case scenario" suggest that there is significant evidence to indicate a difference in age group with respect to volunteer reasons (chi-square=21.81 at $p < .01$) yet the relation is weak (Cramer's Phi=.207). Therefore, even in the worst case scenario, there is evidence to suggest that younger volunteers identify proportionately more career-oriented reasons for volunteering than internal motives. In contrast, older volunteers identify proportionately more internal reasons for volunteering than career-related motives.

Social Class

Although considered a potentially significant variable to the study of volunteer work, the degree of complexity involved in measuring the social class position (using income, education, and occupation as the three central indicators of social class) of women across age groups is beyond the sensitivity of the measurement tool employed in this study. One potentially problematic area is the measurement of one's income, particularly for the older population. As demonstrated by Fengler's (1984) study of older

volunteers, income is a sensitive topic to the older population and questions regarding income are often avoided. Without the opportunity to probe a respondent, it is reasonable to suspect that the questionnaire method may not yield a sufficient number of responses from the older population regarding their income, much less provide information for determining social class. A second factor to consider is that the measure of a young woman's social class position may be quite unstable due to the likely change in educational attainment, occupation, and income. For example, an unemployed second year university student may experience a drastic change in social class status two years later when she completes her degree, and is employed in a (permanent) higher-skilled work position.

These are some of the potential difficulties that may arise in the measurement of women's social class position for those participating in this study. However, given the central focus upon the work cycle in this study and in consideration of the literature that stresses the potential influence of one's work experiences upon one's motivation to volunteer, an occupational class structure that includes such class factors as autonomy, control, and training are utilized and tested in this study.¹⁵

Statistical Procedures

This study employs various statistical procedures for data analysis including frequency distributions with measures of central tendencies (mode and median), a measure of association (Cramer's Phi and Phi), and Chi-Square tests. Because the nature of the relationships studied do not present severe consequences (i.e., life-threatening consequences) to warrant a stricter significance level, the significance level at an alpha of .05 is reasonable.

¹⁵See Definition of Terms for more detail.

Ethical Considerations

The volunteer coordinators of each facility agreed, in writing, to the outlined procedures regarding distribution of the questionnaire.¹⁶ Earlier, copies of the revised questionnaire and cover letter (March, 1996) were mailed to and received by each of the participating homes' volunteer coordinators.¹⁷ The cover letter informs the potential respondents about the study. In addition, it states that the participants' responses are held in confidence by the researcher—that a numerical identification system is enlisted for the sole purpose of tracking returned questionnaires and to help in the follow-up process. Volunteers who were approached by coordinators or other staff were informed that they are under no obligation to complete and return the questionnaire. The respondents were asked to indicate their willingness to participate (if need be—dependent on the rate of return of questionnaires) in a possible second phase of the study. The second phase would consist of a brief interview. The respondent's signature on the cover letter, along with a completed questionnaire served as the volunteer's formal consent to participate in the study.

As agreed in writing, a summary of the results and interpretations generated from the data will be made available to the volunteer coordinators and participants. Specific dates as to when the information will be available will be announced at the completion of the thesis project. Each organization and respondent has been provided with the an address and telephone number in the event that questions or concerns arise on their part.

¹⁶See Appendix A for signed agreements.

¹⁷See Appendix B for questionnaire sample.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The main objectives of this thesis are (1) to provide a descriptive analysis of who volunteers in long-term care settings in terms of both major characteristics and motivations as a whole as well as within specific age groups and (2) to present a sociocultural explanation for the proposed relationship between major characteristics and motivations which specifically addresses age-related differences of female volunteers in terms of a life course structure. In accordance with the two main objectives, the results of this study are divided into two major sections of discussion beginning with a descriptive analysis of who volunteers and an examination of the proposed relationships between the major characteristics and motivations.

Descriptive Analysis

Who Volunteers in Long-Term Care?

The profile of the typical female volunteer presented by Statistics Canada (1989) portrayed her as married, between the ages of 25 and 44, employed full-time, and having attained a high school diploma. As well, her average time volunteering was 3.5 hours per week including the one occasion per year volunteers and she commonly performed such volunteer activities as making items, selling items, preparing or serving food, and friendly visiting (Statistics Canada, 1989). In contrast, the profile that emerged from this study of female long-term care volunteers portrays the typical female long-term care volunteer as predominantly married, 60 years and older, not working for pay, and having attained less than a high school diploma. The following pages provide a more in-depth description of the typical female long-term care volunteer as well as present a more in-depth description of these female long-term care volunteers with respect to the specific age categories of the life course stages. Not only are the major characteristics of the typical female long-term care volunteer reflective of the dominance of a specific age group (i.e., older women) within this specific setting, but the description of female long-

term care volunteers with respect to the various age groups demonstrates important differences (i.e., characteristics and motivations) between the youngest and oldest groups.

Of the 105 female long-term care volunteers who completed and returned a questionnaire, nearly two-thirds (62.9%) were 60 years and older. This large proportion of older volunteers is in keeping with the overall older volunteer population as verified by the long-term care volunteer coordinators. However, the proportion of older women is more than twice that of female volunteers in general (Statistics Canada, 1989). This suggests that older female volunteers are more prevalent within the specific setting of long-term care as similarly documented by previous researchers of female volunteers in health care settings (Anderson and Moore, 1974).

Similar to Statistics Canada's (1989) findings, the largest percentage of female volunteers have been married (66%) although proportionately fewer than Statistics Canada's report (81%). In fact, a greater percentage of the long-term care volunteers in this study were single (34%) and widowed (22.3%) than the population of female volunteers in general (18% and 7% respectively). The discrepancies between Statistics Canada's (1989) study and this study's results may be explained by the different age group distributions of the two studies and the time span between the two studies. For example, this study had proportionately more 15 to 24 year olds (7.2%) who, in today's society, are generally not married. As well, the 15-24 year old age group may have experienced a shift in the average age for women to get married for the first time such that, in the 1980s, the average age may have been lower than the average age for women in 1996. In addition, 60.8% had children. With the exception of one respondent who had at least one child under the age of 18, all the respondent's children were adults, though eight (7.8%) of these adult children still lived at home. These findings—once married and having adult children—are reflective of the characteristics common to the older group of women.

With respect to educational attainment, the largest proportion of the long-term care volunteers in this study have less than a high school diploma (36.1%), closely

followed by those who completed a high school diploma (33%). Although the educational level of female volunteers reported in Statistics Canada's (1989) study is somewhat higher than the educational attainment level of the female volunteers in this study, the educational level of the female long-term care volunteers closely resembles the general Canadian female population (Statistics Canada, 1989). Therefore, it appears that the educational attainment level of female long-term care volunteers is less than the population of female volunteers, suggesting that female volunteers with higher levels of education may be found in other volunteer settings and/or the lower educational level of this study's volunteers is reflecting the older age profile of this sample.

As well, of the 77 respondents who provided information describing their current financial situation, only 17 (22.1%) reported that they were "very concerned" with their current financial situation. Based on the assumption that those with less than a high school diploma (36.1%) were also likely to be very concerned about their financial situation (22.1%), this discrepancy in the relationship between financial concerns and educational level was not what one would generally expect. Given that a large majority of the population were 60 years and older, one reasonable explanation may be that some female volunteers, particularly those who were married, were responding to the financial question in terms of their family's financial situation (i.e., husband's income) rather than an individual situation. Given that Statistics Canada's (1989) report illustrated that the educational level of older men was generally higher than that of older women and that this increased educational attainment of men may likely lessen the level of financial concern for the household in general, the discrepancies are reasonably explained. A second possibility may have been that many of the older respondents who did not provide information describing their financial situation were largely persons who may be unwilling to reveal their financial concerns or insecurities. Or perhaps some of the women with a high school diploma or less were employed in the higher-paying factories. Therefore

there are several reasonable explanations, however without additional information, the discrepancy cannot be explained with certainty.

In contrast to the nearly equivalent distribution of female volunteers among "working for pay" (53%) and "not working for pay" (47%) reported by Statistics Canada (1989), this study found that 83 (79%) of the long-term care volunteers were not working for pay and that 55 (66.3%) cited retirement or retirement/homemaking as their reason for not working for pay. The remaining 22 (21%) respondents worked for pay with 10 (45.5%) of them working 15 hours or less per week and only 6 (27.3%) working full-time. With respect to the most current main work position, the largest concentration of the respondents (18.1%) currently or previously held clerical positions, while the remaining respondents were scattered among a variety of work positions including: homemakers (9.5%), service workers (8.4%), personal service workers (8.4%), factory workers (7.4%), and managers (7.4%). As well, the occupational class distribution of the volunteers in this study--based on the most current main work position--may be reflecting the predominance of the lower-skilled work experiences such as factory labor of the Windsor and Essex County area with 62% of the volunteers representing lower-skilled work backgrounds.

The majority of volunteers in this study were encouraged to volunteer at the long-term care organization by a friend or relative (59.8%), became involved three or more years ago (61%), and currently contribute an average of 4 to 10 hours per month (54.3%). Statistics Canada (1989) reported that the largest percentage of volunteers said that they were approached by someone in the organization. However, in comparison to the other types of volunteer organizations, volunteers in health organizations were more likely than others to have been asked to join by a friend or relative, as in this study.

Consistent with the findings of Statistics Canada (1989) on volunteer motivations, of the 105 long-term care volunteers, 94 (89.5%) identified one of their reasons for volunteering was "to help others." Other common reasons identified in both the volunteer

literature and by these long-term care volunteers were predominantly internal reasons such as "to contribute to the community" (50.5%), "to give more purpose to my life" (61.9%), "to make new friends" (36.2%), and "to use one's skills" (35.2%). Similar to the findings of Statistics Canada (1989), female long-term care volunteers largely performed the more client-focused tasks of visiting (64.8%) and assisting with social activities (54.3%).

To summarize, the typical long-term care volunteer in this study was a married, older woman of a lower-skilled work background with adult children. She had a high school or lower education. She was mainly motivated by the internal rewards of volunteering, and her volunteer work largely involved providing direct services to clients that were socio-emotional in nature. The following description of long-term care volunteers with respect to specific age groups provides a more in-depth analysis of the major characteristics and motivations of long-term care volunteers, and suggests a relationship where the characteristics and motivations of volunteers are largely dependent upon age.

The Oldest Adults (60 and Older):

As reported above, a large proportion (62.9%) of the long-term care volunteers in this sample were 60 years old and over with the oldest volunteer 86 years of age. The median age of those in this age group was 71 years. Given the typical life experiences outlined earlier in the life course stages for this age category, it was not unusual to find that 53 (82.8%) have been married with 23 (35.9%) who were widowed. With the exception of two who didn't respond and one divorced person, the remaining 11 (17.2%) women represented the proportion who were never married.

Of the 53 older women who have been married, 50 of them have children--a finding not unexpected given the sociocultural and historical context of the time which stressed the societal expectation of childbearing for married women. Six women (12.2%)

reported that at least one of their adult children was currently living in their household. Moreover, four of these six women indicated that they were the primary caregivers for chronically ill adult children.

With the exception of the seven women who did not respond to the question regarding their educational level, the most common level of educational achievement was less than a high school diploma (44.1%). Seventeen (28.8%) women had post-secondary education and 16 (27.1%) had earned a high school diploma. Given the educational opportunities for these women in their early adult years (1930s-1950s) and the dominant cultural expectation for women to assume the roles of wife and mother, such findings are not unusual (Chambre, 1987).

A total of 25 (37.8%) older women did not provide information that could be used to describe the overall financial situation of this age group. Of the 41 older women who responded, 20 (48.8%) stated they were "not at all concerned," while 16 (39%) stated they were "somewhat concerned," and only five (13.2%) said they were "very concerned" about their current financial situation. Due to the sizable proportion of older women who did not provide information that could have been used to describe their financial situation, it is difficult to determine the overall financial situation of these volunteers. However some points should be noted. First, similar to Fengler (1984) and Fletcher's (1991) findings, it appears that one's financial situation is a fairly sensitive topic to this particular age group, despite the "softer" formulation of this study's question regarding one's financial situation. It is important to keep in mind that the older group, although considered economically dependent as are the young adults, older women--unlike their younger counterparts--have greater opportunities for securing income due to retirement and government assistance plans including pensions of their own and/or their spouse's, Old Age Security, Guaranteed Income Supplement, and Spouse's Allowance.

With the exception of one 60 year old female volunteer, 14 (93.3%) women between the ages of 60 and 65 were not working for pay, including two homemakers who

never worked for pay. In addition, the 60 year old volunteer who continued to work for pay was the only volunteer between the ages of 60 to 65 who stated that she was "very concerned" about her current financial situation. The remaining 51 women over 65 were not working for pay, including five women who never worked for pay. Of the 58 respondents, 16 women held office sector positions and 15 women held semi-professional positions. Of the office sector workers, 12 worked in clerical fields and 10 (60%) of the semi-professionals were health care workers. In general, however, based on their most recent main work position, a large proportion (62.5%) of the women were from lower-skilled work backgrounds.

Some patterns regarding this age group's volunteer behavior did emerge. For example, a large percentage (74.2%) of older women stated that a friend or relative played a significant role in initiating their volunteer involvement at the long-term care organization. As well, virtually equal numbers of these older women dedicated 4 to 10 hours per month as compared to "more than 10 hours per month" (32 versus 34, respectively) for the long-term care organization. In addition, a majority (53%) of women stated that the amount of time committed to volunteering has remained "about the same" since they began at the organization and 81.8 % of the older women began more than three years ago. Therefore, it appears that the older women's commitment to volunteering at a particular long-term care organization is long-term and consistent.

Perhaps the greatest similarities found within this age group were the commonly shared reasons as to why older women volunteer. Of the 66 respondents, 62 (93.9%) listed "to help others" among their top five reasons to volunteer, followed by 54 (81.8%) women who identified the reason "to give more purpose to my life." In addition, one-half of the older respondents identified "to contribute to the community," followed closely by 32 (48%) women who expressed the desire "to make new friends." To a lesser extent, reasons such as "to do something" (36%) and "to use my skills" (35%) were also identified among the older volunteers.

Nearly all of the older women stated that they performed more than one volunteer task. A majority of the kinds of volunteer tasks performed by most (60%) older women were client-oriented. A much smaller proportion of the respondents (19%) indicated that a majority of the tasks performed were organization-focused. In comparison to the other age groups, these older adults appeared to engage in a wider variety (8) of volunteer task areas. Among the most common tasks were visiting (55%), assisting with activities (50%), helping in the gift shop (29%), and small-scale fundraising (26%) such as selling lottery tickets, bake sales, and craft boutiques. Lastly, about 10-20% of the older volunteers also attended to the individual needs of the clients, provided or assisted with religious services, transportation, or entertainment.

The Young Adults (15-24 Years Old):

Of the 21 young adults in this study, 17 were between the ages of 20 and 24 with nearly half 20 years old. The young adults, who represent the second largest pool of female long-term care volunteers (20%), were single, without children, and nearly all were students. In addition, five of the fourteen women who were currently students at a college or university had already completed a college or university degree.

Eighteen women expressed concern about their current financial situation with seven (38.8%) stating they were "very concerned." One reason may be that many young adults are not working for pay or are underemployed. In fact, though 12 of the 21 young women were working for pay, a significant majority (75%) worked 15 hours or less per week. Seven young working women held job positions in the service industry and three worked in the office sector. In addition, half (50%) of the working women stated that they were "very concerned" about the possibility of being unemployed. Therefore, in contrast to the older volunteers who generally expressed few financial concerns and most of whom were retired, the young women generally expressed both financial and work concerns.

Volunteer participation among this age group is likely influenced by the educational system and the labor market. One strong piece of evidence suggesting the influence of the educational system is the large percentage of young women (47.6%) who began volunteering at the long-term care organization through a school placement. As well, 14 (73.7%) young women who were currently enrolled in an educational institution began volunteering at the long-term care organization within the last six months and 15 (78.9%) students maintained "about the same amount of time"—mainly 4 to 10 hours per month—as when they began. Therefore, given the relatively high number of school placements and the recency of their involvement, it seems reasonable to suspect that the volunteer patterns of these young adult students in long-term care settings may be largely influenced by the educational system. Perhaps the volunteer patterns of most young adults reflect the time period stipulated by a particular school course that requires volunteer participation. In any case, the apparent relationship between the educational system and the volunteering patterns of young adult students is worthy of further investigation.

The labor market also plays a significant role in the study of volunteering among young adults. According to Burman (1988: 38), "young adults were turned away from work because they were inexperienced." He argues that during a period of high unemployment, even jobs that claim "no experience required" demand it. Therefore, young adults, particularly those with little to no previous work experience, may look to volunteer work to gain the experience the employers are demanding.

Similar to the older volunteers, the largest percentage (81%) identified the reason "to help others" among their top five reasons for volunteering, followed by "to obtain skills" (67%), and "to explore career opportunities" (62%). To a lesser extent, young adults identified reasons such as "to contribute to the community" (48%) and "to obtain course or school credit" (43%). Therefore, younger volunteers were motivated by some of the internal reasons for volunteering such as "to help others" and "to contribute

to the community." However, a substantial proportion (76.2%) of young volunteers identified more career-related reasons—as compared to the total number of reasons identified—than internal reasons, suggesting that younger volunteers are primarily motivated by the career-related rewards of volunteering.

Young adults were concentrated in fewer (3) volunteer task areas than the older adults (8). Similar to the older adults, the largest percentage of young volunteers were involved in visiting (86%) and assisting with social activities (71%). However, in contrast to the older volunteers, a relatively large number of young volunteers engage in tasks involving teaching (29%) clients. Therefore, with the exception of the volunteer task of teaching, younger and older volunteers appear to be concentrated in similar volunteer task areas. However, the older adults are more widely dispersed among task areas in general than the young adults.

The Middle-Aged Adults (40-59 Years Old):

Middle-aged women represented 15 (14.3%) of the long-term care volunteers in this study. Two-thirds of these women were in their fifties. In fact, the median age in the 40-59 year old age group was 55. Therefore, a large proportion of these women were concentrated at the higher end of this age category. All of the middle-aged women have been married with two who were divorced. Thirteen of these women had adult children though two reported that their adult children live in their household. Therefore, the middle-aged volunteers were quite similar to the older volunteers with respect to marital status and children.

Most of the women in this age group had at least a high school diploma (73.3%), seven (63.6%) of them had achieved more than a high school diploma—largely undergraduate degrees. As well, of the 13 respondents providing information that could be used to describe their current financial situation, about half of the women (53.8%) expressed "some concern," while the remaining six (46.2%) women were equally divided

among "very concerned" (23.1%) and "not at all concerned" (23.1%). It appears that the educational attainment of the middle-aged volunteers more closely resembles that of the younger volunteers than that of the older volunteers. As well, it appears that the middle-aged may be more concerned about their financial situation as compared to the older volunteers, however less concerned than the younger volunteers.

Among the 15 middle-aged volunteers, nine (60%) did not work for pay, including two women who never worked for pay. Among those not working for pay, seven stated the homemaker role as the reason for not participating in the labor force, while two women who claimed early retirement from agricultural work. Of the six women who were currently working outside the home, half worked full-time hours--mainly semi-professional or managerial positions--and half were employed part-time. Overall, with respect to their most recent main work position, the middle-aged women were nearly equally divided among lower-skilled (8) and higher-skilled work positions (7). Of the eight lower-skilled positions, half were clerical positions. The seven higher-skilled positions included mainly managers and independent commodity producers (farming). As one may expect with the comparably higher level of educational attainment than the older volunteers, proportionately more middle-aged volunteers (9.2%) held higher-skilled work positions than the older volunteers.

The middle-aged volunteers typically (80%) committed to 4 to 10 hours of volunteer work per month and had been consistent in maintaining approximately the same number or more hours since they first began at the long-term care facility. Ten (75%) women had volunteered for the long-term care organization for three or more years. Similar to the older adults, middle-aged women most often cited "friend or relative" as the way in which they became involved at the organization.

Similar to the older adults, nearly all (93%) of the middle-aged volunteers identified more internal than career-related reasons for volunteering. Like the older and younger volunteers, the most commonly identified reason to volunteer among the middle-

aged was "to help others" (93%), suggesting that this reason is not age-specific. Other internal reasons identified included "to give more purpose to my life" (73%), and "to contribute to the community" (67%). To a lesser extent, middle-aged volunteers identified "to use my skills" (33%), "to fulfill religious obligations" (33%), and "to do something" (27%). In addition, the task areas in which middle-aged volunteers were largely concentrated included visiting (80%), assisting with activities (60%), fundraising (47%), and providing or assisting with religious services (33%). Therefore, similar to the older volunteers, the middle-aged volunteers were largely motivated by the internal rewards of volunteering. However, like the younger volunteers, they were concentrated in relatively few task areas.

The 25-39 Year Old Age Group: Adulthood

As hypothesized, this age group was least represented (2.8%) among female long-term care volunteers. Although the *double burden* of family and work force participation may assist in explaining the low participation rate among female long-term care volunteers in this age group, their virtual nonexistence in long-term care suggests that the setting is critical. Due to the lack of volunteer representation in this age group, the following paragraphs provide a brief description of these volunteers and discuss how the setting may be the factor that largely explains the relative lack of participation among 25 to 39 year olds in long-term care settings.

Volunteers between the ages of 25-39 in this study were single and childless. The youngest member was not working for pay and was a high school student. However, all three women were at one time employed in the service industry—one worked full-time and the other part-time. The educational attainment level was equally divided among the three women, ranging from "less than high school diploma" to "more than a high school diploma." With the exception of the full-time worker, two volunteers stated that they were "very concerned" about their current financial situation and largely identified

career-related motivations for volunteering. On virtually all accounts, including motivation to volunteer, the few members of this age group closely resemble the characteristics and motivations of the younger volunteers.

The absence of double-burdened women (i.e., married with children and employed) in this age category provides one piece of tentative evidence in support of the double burden argument which claims that, due to the two demanding roles of homemaker and paid worker, women of this age group are less likely to volunteer in general. However, "when younger women volunteer, it is in the interests of their children" (Chambre, 1987: 58). For example, a large proportion of "adult" women volunteer in education and youth areas such as parent-teacher groups, elementary and secondary schools, and youth development (Statistics Canada, 1989). As well, a study of Girl Scout volunteers concluded that most of the women who volunteered did so because their daughters were involved in Scouts (Demos, 1975). Therefore, given that long-term care organizations are focused on the aged and not children's interests, it is reasonable to conclude that the setting is likely to play a significant part in explaining the relative lack of volunteer involvement among these women and that such a relationship is worthy of future investigation.

Comparison of Age Groups

In summary, with respect to the four age groups of female volunteers in this study, variations in major characteristics as well as volunteer motivations were detected, particularly between the youngest and oldest age groups of volunteers. In contrast to the younger volunteers (under 40) who were never married and childless, older volunteers were once married and had adult children. As well, women in the 25-39 age group appeared to express a level of financial and work concerns similar to the youngest group whereas the older volunteers expressed fewer financial and work concerns.

Summary Table: A Comparison of the "Typical Female Volunteer Profiles"

Characteristic (of women)			Statistics Canada 1989 Results	My Study's Results
Age Groups	15-24 years		12.8%	20%
	25-39 years*	25-44 years	48.4%	2.8%*
	40-59 years*	45-64 years	26.4%	14.3%*
	60 & Older*	65 & Older	12.3%	62.9%*
Marital Status	Never Married		18%	34%
	Once Married (except widow)		74%	43.7%
	Widowed		7%	22.3%
Education	Less than High School		7.5%	36.1%
	High School Diploma		48.5%	33%
	More than High School		44%	30.9%
Labor Force Status	Working For Pay		53.3%	21%
	Not Working For Pay		46.7%	79%
Average Volunteer Hours/Month			28 hrs/mo	4-10 hrs/mo

* Note that the age group category distinctions vary between studies and the results are reported according to the respective study.

Without more information regarding the long-term educational goal of the younger volunteers who are largely students, it is difficult to comment on the educational attainment level of the volunteers as a whole. The younger volunteers, who are currently pursuing their final educational degree or certificate may not be comparable or equivalent to the older volunteers who have likely completed their educational pursuits. However, with the relatively high number of younger women enrolled in colleges and universities, the general trend for younger women to attain higher educational levels than the older women have appears to be modeled in this study of female volunteers.

With respect to one's labor force status, most of the volunteers in this study were not employed in the paid labor force, with the employed young mostly working less than 16 hours per week and the older more likely to be retired from the work force. In light of this discrepancy, it is not unusual to find that the younger and older volunteers differed in their motivations to volunteer such that the young were generally career-oriented and the older volunteers were internally-oriented.¹⁸

Lastly, with respect to the dominant client-focused nature of volunteer tasks in long-term care settings and the literature review indicating men participated in more organization-focused tasks such as repairing and coaching, it was not unusual to find that male volunteers in this setting were virtually nonexistent.¹⁹ In addition, women of all ages in this study were largely concentrated in two main volunteer task areas: friendly visiting and activities. And, as Chambre (1987: 57) noted, "women spend more energy developing...roles that can be described as expressive and deal with the social and the emotional aspects of human relationships." Therefore, with respect to tasks commonly performed in long-term care settings, it appears that gender plays a more dominant role than age.

¹⁸See Explanatory Analysis for more details.

¹⁹See Sampling Procedures for more detail.

The volunteer literature as a whole largely neglected to recognize the importance of age by providing incomplete and ambiguous examinations of the characteristic. However, the above descriptive analysis of the typical long-term care volunteer as well as the profile of the typical volunteer within a particular age group, attests to the claim that age is an important factor in the description of the volunteer population. The following section demonstrates the importance of age to understanding the volunteer motivations of these women.

Explanatory Analysis

The following portion examines the proposed relationships between the major characteristics and motivations of volunteers in long-term care settings. This section begins with a restatement of the central and secondary hypotheses, an examination of the results including an in-depth discussion of some of the more common reasons for volunteering identified by younger and older volunteers, and a presentation of the sociocultural explanation for the findings with emphasis on the work cycle of the life course. Immediately following is the analysis and discussion of the sub-hypothesis and research questions regarding the potential influence of occupational class.

Central Hypothesis: *Older female adults are more likely to identify the internal rewards as reasons why they volunteer than younger women.*

Secondary Hypothesis: *Young female adults are primarily motivated by the career-related rewards of volunteering.*

TABLE 4: Orientation of Reasons to Volunteer by Selected Age Group

AGE GROUP			
VOLUNTEER REASONS	15-24 Years Old	60 & Older	Row Total
More Career-Oriented	16 76.2%		16 18.4%
More Internal-Oriented	5 23.8%	66 100%	71 81.6%
Column Total	21 24.1%	66 75.9%	87 100%

P-VALUE= .000
PHI= .842
MISSING VALUE=0

CHI-SQUARE= 61.62
DF= 1

As illustrated in Table 4 which looks solely at the two extreme age groups, women who were 60 years and older were significantly more motivated by the internal rewards of volunteering than the younger women of 15 to 24 years old. In fact, 76.2% of the young adult volunteers identified more career-related motives than internal motives, indicating that in general, younger volunteers were primarily motivated by the career-related rewards of their volunteer involvement. This relationship between age and reasons for volunteering was extremely stable (p -value=.00) and strong (Φ = .842).

TABLE 5: Orientation of Reasons to Volunteer by Age Group

AGE GROUP					
VOLUNTEER REASONS	15-24 Years Old	25-39 Years Old	40-59 Years Old	60 & Older	Row Total
More Career Oriented	16 76.2%	2 66.7%	1 6.7%		19 18.1%
More Internal Oriented	5 23.8%	1 33.3%	14 93.3%	66 100%	86 81.9%
Column Total	21 20.0%	3 2.9%	15 14.3%	66 62.9%	105 100%

P-VALUE= .000
CRAMER'S PHI= .808

CHI-SQUARE= 68.50
DF= 3

MISSING VALUE=0

Table 5 illustrates the relationship between the orientation of reasons to volunteer by all four age groups. Although there was relatively little age representation among the 25-39 and 40-59 age groups, Table 5 clearly exhibited a pattern where women 40 and

TABLE 6: Top 5 Reasons to Volunteer Among Younger & Older Women

REASONS TO VOLUNTEER	15-24 YEAR OLDS (N= 21)		60 AND OLDER (N= 66)		PHI	P-VALUE
INTERNAL REASONS:	#	%	#	%		
To Help Others	17	81.0%	62	93.9%	.19232	.07283
To Give More Purpose To My Life	4	19.0%	54	81.8%	.56980	.00000
To Contribute to the Community	10	47.6%	33	50.0%	.02038	.84925
To Make New Friends	6	28.6%	32	48.5%	.17181	.10905
To Do Something (Meaningful)	3	14.3%	24	36.4%	.20421	.05681
To Pass Time**	2	9.5%	12	18.2%	.38525	.09363
To Fulfill Religious Obligations	1	4.8%	12	18.2%	.16108	.13298
CAREER-RELATED REASONS:						
To Obtain Skills and Training	14	66.7%	1	1.5%	-.73806	.00000
To Explore a Career	13	61.9%	0	0%	-.74305	.00000
To Fulfill a Course Requirement...	9	42.9%	0	0%	-.60219	.00000
For My Resume	8	38.1%	0	0%	-.56415	.00000
To Use My Skills and Experience	7	33.3%	23	34.8%	.01364	.89876
For Admission into College...	2	9.5%	0	0%	-.27194	.01120
To Establish Career Contacts	2	9.5%	0	0%	-.27194	.01120

***"To Pass Time" has been excluded from analysis due to the overall lack of respondents identifying this reason and because respondents did not elaborate on the meaning of this reason in order to properly classify it among the established volunteer motivation scheme.

over were more internal-oriented than those women under 40 years old, suggesting that the primary orientation of one's motivation to volunteer varied with age. Also, similar to Table 4, the relationship between life stages (age groups) and reasons for volunteering exhibited in Table 5 was extremely stable ($p\text{-value}=.00$) and strong (Cramer's $\Phi=.808$).

Therefore, Table 4 and Table 5 each demonstrate statistical significance in support of the central and secondary hypotheses which suggests that (1) older women are more likely to identify the internal rewards as reasons why they volunteer than younger women and (2) younger women are primarily motivated by the career-related rewards of volunteering.

It is recognized that Table 4 and Table 5 also indicate cells with small expected frequencies (< 5) that may impact the chi-square value and potentially mislead one to falsely reject the null hypotheses.²⁰ In the case of the cells with small expected frequencies, there was evidence that the contribution of these cells alone to the respective chi-square statistic for both cases (20.73 and 11.94, respectively) exceeded the critical chi-square value (6.63 and 11.34, respectively), thus supporting the rejection of the null hypotheses based on these cells. However, given the strong evidence indicating a statistically significant difference between age and several individual reasons for volunteering as summarized in Table 6, the expectation was for a high concentration of volunteers in either (1) young/career-oriented and (2) older/internal-oriented. Thus, it is argued that threat of falsely rejecting the null hypotheses based on the cells with expected frequencies less than five (i.e., older/career-oriented) is unlikely.

The conclusions drawn from the results illustrated in Table 4 and Table 5 are further substantiated by the results of the relationships between age and the individual motivations for volunteering as demonstrated in Table 6. According to Table 6, seven of

²⁰Collapsing cells to eliminate the small expected frequencies were not an option in either of these cases.

the fifteen variables examined were statistically different by age. Nearly all the remaining reasons listed in Table 6 suggested a general pattern where older women appeared more internally motivated to volunteer than their younger counterparts and younger women more readily identified the career-related reasons than the older volunteers.

Six of the seven statistically significant relationships demonstrated in Table 6 are evidence of strong support for the predominantly career-motivated younger volunteers, indicating that there was a significant difference between age and several individual career-related motivations for volunteering including "to obtain skills and training, to explore a career, to fulfill a course requirement/school credit, for my resume, for admission into college, and to establish career contacts." Only one of the career-related motivations, "to use my skills and experience" was not found to be statistically different with respect to age.

The seventh relationship which demonstrated a significant difference was found between age and the internal motivation "to give more purpose to my life." This reason was identified by a substantial proportion (81.8%) of the older volunteers and was relatively unrecognized by the younger volunteers (19%). Although the remaining relationships between the internal reasons for volunteering and age were not statistically significant, higher proportions of older women than younger women identified these internal reasons in their top five rank order, providing some evidence in support of the central hypothesis which proposed that older women are more likely to identify internal motivations for volunteering than younger women.

Finally, Table 6 illustrates that on the whole, younger volunteers *do* identify with the internal reasons for volunteering. In fact, younger volunteers commonly identified "to help others" (81%), "to contribute to the community" (47.6%), and "to make new friends" (28.6%) among their top five reasons for volunteering. These findings suggest that internal motivations do play an important part in motivating young women to do volunteer work.

The following pages present a sociocultural explanation for the relationship between age and motivation to volunteer while highlighting specific and statistically significant findings as illustrated in Table 6. As well, some of the more commonly identified reasons²¹ for volunteering are discussed further to expand our understanding of the proposed relationship between age and motivation.

Towards a Sociocultural Understanding of Volunteer Motivation and Age

Why Older Women are More Internally Motivated to Volunteer than Younger Women

According to Conner (1992), to work, to produce, and to contribute are values deeply entrenched in the North American culture. And closely tied to this culturally significant value is one's social identity where being identified as a productive member of society suggests status, purpose, and meaning. As noted earlier, these central values may be expressed through work behaviors within paid work, unpaid domestic labor, and/or volunteer work—opportunities which provide both internal and external rewards. Furthermore, the specific age-related cultural expectations and social situations characteristic of the respective work phases for the younger and older adults largely dictate the appropriate work opportunities for a given age group and ultimately shape one's behavior to conform to what is appropriate and expected at a given age.

For example, the cultural expectations that dictate the appropriate behaviors for younger and older adults are diametrically opposite in their orientation towards paid work participation. For young adults, appropriate action is to prepare for their position in the labor force while for older adults, appropriate action is to avoid participating in the paid labor force, especially full-time participation (Atchley, 1991). These cultural expectations are strongly upheld by various social institutions such as schools and

²¹Reasons identified by approximately 20% or more of the younger and older adults.

The Relationship Between Age and the More Commonly Identified Internal Reasons

Table 4 and 5 illustrated that less than 25% of the young adults identified more internal than career-related reasons for volunteering, suggesting that most young adults are primarily motivated by the career-related rewards of volunteer work. However, review of the individual relationships between age and various internal motivations highlighted that a strong proportion of the younger volunteers identified several internal motivations among their top five reasons for volunteering, suggesting the importance and value of internal motives for younger volunteers. Among the most commonly identified internal reasons of the younger volunteers were "to help others" (81.8%), "to contribute to the community" (47.6%), and "to make new friends" (28.6%). The following pages provide a brief discussion on these three reasons for volunteering, highlighting the role of age and the broader sociocultural context.

As noted earlier, Sherrott (1983) had argued that two broad categories of volunteers were identified, the natural helpers and the noblesse oblige. Evidence in this study of these two types of volunteers were present in several open-ended statements from volunteers. Some older women explained their volunteering in terms of the reciprocity characteristic of the natural helpers. For example, one volunteer stated "my mother and aunt received excellent care at [the home] and I would like to reciprocate." Another volunteer wrote that she was "thankful for the many volunteers and caregivers" she saw working with her mother and felt that she "should give some of that back." And lastly, an older volunteer stated that her volunteering was a "way of paying a little back and doing for others what somebody did for [her] family." Furthermore, given the kind of neighborhood which fostered this form of mutual care is declining and consequently, "the capacity for such caring has declined" among people, it seems reasonable that this form of volunteering may eventually diminish as time passes and social and cultural expectations change (Sherrott, 1983: 111). In fact, evidence may be found in the 13% discrepancy between the young adults and older adults in this study.

Other volunteers in this study claimed that they "had a duty to help those in need" or "to help the community" and "to care for those less fortunate." Some volunteers in this study referred to giving to those less fortunate as an expression of thanks and gratitude for the many blessings they'd received throughout life. For example, one woman stated she felt that she "owed something to the less fortunate because God had been very good to [her] throughout [her] life." Therefore, the social and moral duty associated with helping others was evident in the responses from volunteers in this study and is supported by the substantial proportion of both younger (47.6%) and older volunteers (50%).

In addition to the two broad categories of helpers, some responses from the young adults in this study suggested a third category where the internal motivation of wanting to help others was coupled with the career-related motivation of wanting to gain knowledge and skills. For example, one young adult stated that "it [was] important to [her] to continually learn [her] field of study [nursing]" and that "caring for others [was] important to [her] too." Another young adult wrote that "[she] enjoyed helping others and gaining experience in a hospital situation." Therefore, it appears that "helping others" may not only reflect an internal motivations, but also reflect the career-related goals to acquire skills and knowledge for future careers in the helping professions. This additional expression of preparing for a career may be the quality that best illustrates the differences between the oldest and youngest volunteers.

However, "to help others" was the most common reason identified by both age groups with the oldest group having indicated its importance slightly more (93.9%) than the young adults (81%). Similarly, nearly an equal percentage of younger (47.6%) and older volunteers (50%) identified "to contribute to the community" among their top five reasons for volunteering. Such findings, where the reasons stated reflect helping behaviors,²² may be indicating another more influential factor, gender. Given that the

²²See discussion with respect to these two reasons in Classification Scheme for

defining quality of the work tasks (paid and voluntary) in long-term care settings is the provision of support and care to others and that caring labor remains the central responsibility of women in this culture, it is reasonable that a substantial number of women in this study, regardless of age, would rank "to help others" within their top five reasons for volunteering (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1994a). Moreover, it appears that helping others—even in terms of women's appropriate and expected paid work tasks—reflects the expression of a culturally internalized value among women in this culture.

The final internal reason commonly identified by the younger volunteers was "to make new friends." Both older and young volunteers identified "to make new friends" among their top five reasons for volunteering. Though not significantly different, there was a greater percentage of older (48.5%) than younger volunteers (28.6%) who identified "to make new friends" among their top five reasons for volunteering (Table 6). With respect to a sociocultural perspective, specifically a life course framework, the discrepancy between older and younger women is not unexpected. For instance, older women are likely to have a substantially smaller social environment due to the death of family members and friends, whereas young adults have not had their social networks reduced by death. As well, older volunteers are likely to experience "fewer and fewer friendships that are work-related" (Chambre, 1987: 33) whereas the younger volunteers are more likely to have more social opportunities to meet new people, particularly students in a post-secondary institution where one's classmates change frequently.

The diminishing social network of the older volunteer may mean the loss of satisfying one's internal desires for association and affiliation. For example, an older volunteer—who was widowed, childless, and a homemaker who never worked for pay—expressed that volunteering gave her a substitute family and that she referred to the long-term care residents "as [her] babies." Given that younger volunteers generally have

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substantial opportunities for friendship and companionship, why did a substantial proportion (28.6%) of the young volunteers in this study identify "to make new friends" among their top five reasons for volunteering? One explanation may be that some of the younger volunteers in this study may not have had a relatively large social network due to some personal situational or social circumstances such as recently moving into the area, or having a relatively small immediate and extended family. A second explanation may be accentuated by Hadley and others' (1975) study which found that some of the students who volunteered did so because their friends at school had decided to volunteer. This finding suggests that making friends may not be a direct expectation of the volunteer organization itself, but rather of the school course requiring the volunteer involvement. In this case, the desire for affiliation and association is more functionally served by the school system than by the particular volunteer setting itself. Thus, it is reasonable to suspect that the meaning associated with the volunteer reason "to make new friends" may vary among the older and younger volunteers. Unfortunately, due to a lack of open-ended responses from the younger volunteers who identified the close-ended response "to make new friends," such a distinction could not be supported by the data collected in this study. However, the reason "to make new friends" did serve to illustrate that association and affiliation may be important aspects related to volunteer work for both younger and older volunteers.

Understanding the Relationship Between Age and "To Use My Skills and Experience"

"To use my skills and experience" was the only career-related reason identified by a substantial proportion of older (34.8%) and younger volunteers (33.3%). Given that older women are culturally expected to retire from the work force near the age of 65 and that the remaining career-related reasons were relevant only to those individuals who are presently employed or anticipating future employment, the general lack of older women identifying the other career-related reasons was expected.

The identification of this particular reason among younger volunteers is not unexpected given the societal expectation of preparing for the work force and the social pressure of high unemployment rates among this age group (Statistics Canada, 1994). The younger volunteers were likely behaving based on their role as student where the school system promotes voluntary community service as an opportunity for applying their skills and knowledge, as well as demonstrate their preparedness for a future paid work position. These views were expressed by an out-of-work college student who claimed that volunteering was important to her so that she could "get recognized through job placement."

Older women are encouraged to "carry over their skills, experience, knowledge, and identity" from their main work position and assume the role of volunteer (Atchley, 1991: 208). According to Sherrott (1983), volunteering provides one with the opportunity to continue to use one's skills and pursue the interests acquired through employment. However, unlike their younger counterparts who are likely preparing for a future career, older women see volunteering as a *substitute* for their employment. For example, one former nurse stated that she "chose volunteer work when [she] no longer wanted to be tied to a full-time job and [she] felt that [she] could use [her] abilities to help." Therefore, both age groups are expected to use their skills. However, older women are expected to use their skills as a means to gain a substitute for employment whereas the younger women are expected to use their skills as a means to achieve a future job.

Why Younger Volunteers Primarily Identified Career-Related Reasons

As noted earlier, the dominant cultural expectation for young adults is to prepare for the labor force. The educational system is perhaps the most important instrument in this preparation process. According to Hadley and others (1975), the educational system plays a critical role in stressing the practical application of job-related skills in voluntary community service, portraying volunteering as an educational tool to better prepare students for anticipated work positions in a highly competitive work force. One example

of portraying the educational or work-related benefits of volunteering is found in a flyer posted at the University of Windsor.²³ The career-related rewards listed in the bulletin included gaining potential job contacts, receiving academic credit, and career exploration. As well, the flyer stressed the importance of "valuable community service experience for [one's] resume or post-secondary school application." In some instances, "schools have made this voluntary work a compulsory part of school life" (Hamilton-Smith, 1973: 79). In fact, 42.9% of the younger volunteers indicated that their volunteering was required for school credit, suggesting that a subgroup existed within the younger volunteer sample where young women may volunteer primarily for career-related reasons, however, all of them may not be under the same compulsion to volunteer.

The cultural expectation for the young adults to prepare for the work force is further emphasized by the immediate social pressures, particularly the high rate of unemployment among the young adult group (Statistics Canada, 1994). According to Statistics Canada (1994: 5), "young women are...considerably more likely than other women to be unemployed." In fact, women between the ages of 15 to 24 almost exclusively accounted for the drop in the labor force participation of women in the early 1990s. From 1990 to 1993, young women experienced a 7.1% drop in employment--a dramatic amount compared to the other age groups of women whose unemployment rate ranged from as low as .7% to a high of 2.3%. In addition, young women are more likely than other age groups of women to work part-time (Statistics Canada, 1994). According to Statistics Canada (1994: 13), "in 1993, 48% of the employed women aged 15-24 worked part-time where 28% of them wanted, but couldn't find full-time work," suggesting a high rate of underemployment among this age group of women. Closely related to these disproportionately high rates of unemployment, part-time work, and

²³ See Appendix C for sample flyer.

underemployment among young women are concerns regarding one's current financial situation and the possibility of becoming unemployed--each of which were overwhelmingly expressed by the young women in this study. Thus, given this educational and economic climate, it is not surprising to find that over 75% of the young adults in this study identified mostly career-related motives for volunteering.

In general, younger and older adults are governed by different cultural expectations and social circumstances based on their respective work phases. As illustrated, these differences influence their work opportunities and experiences, and consequently produce different orientations and motivations towards volunteer work. It appears that both the older and the younger volunteers are responding to different forms of work-related pressures and situations brought on by the different cultural expectations and social circumstances of their respective work phases. Older adults--who are more limited with respect to their work opportunities--are more likely to look to volunteer work to meet their needs for such internal rewards as value expression and identity whereas young adults--who as a group face a high rate of joblessness--are more likely to seek the external career-related rewards of volunteering in an attempt to better secure future employment.

The Relationship between Main Work and Volunteer Tasks

Sub-hypothesis: *Women are likely to primarily engage in volunteer tasks that are similar to those performed in their main work position.*

According to the work cycle of the life course paradigm (Diagram 1), young adults are predominantly preparing for their main work position. Therefore, the young adults were not included in the analysis. In addition, given that the actual tasks performed by homemakers are "not clearly defined, and the boundaries are, relative to paid work,

unspecified" (Acker, 1988: 488), the nine homemakers who never worked for pay were also excluded from the analysis.

TABLE 7: Orientation of Volunteer Tasks by Orientation of Main Work Position

ORIENTATION OF MAIN WORK POSITION			
VOLUNTEER TASK ORIENTATION	Client-Oriented	Organization-Oriented	Row Total
More Client-Oriented	15 60.0%	22 57.9%	37 58.7%
More Organization Oriented	6 24.0%	7 18.4%	13 20.6%
Equally Client & Organization-Oriented	4 16.0%	9 23.7%	13 20.6%
Column Total	25 39.7%	38 60.3%	63 100%

P-VALUE= .715 CHI-SQUARE= .670
 CRAMER'S PHI= .103 DF= 2
 MISSING VALUE=10

As Table 7 illustrates, the relationship between the volunteers' main paid work orientation and their volunteer work orientation was not found to be statistically significant (p-value= .715) nor strong (Cramer's Phi= .103). The lack of empirical support for the proposed relationship is likely reflecting the influence of two key factors: setting and gender. As demonstrated in Table 7, a majority of the volunteers are performing more client-oriented kinds of volunteer tasks (58.7%) than organization-oriented and another 20.6% of the volunteers indicated that half of the task areas they are involved in are client-oriented. Given that the primary responsibility of the long-term care organizations is to provide direct care to residents, it is reasonable to suspect that most of the volunteer tasks in this type of setting are client-focused. Conversely, it is reasonable to conclude that many people whose focus is generally on organization-oriented kinds of tasks (i.e., those chiefly involving paper or money) are likely found in other volunteer locations that are more organization-focused.

Another factor that is likely to influence these results is the gender composition of the volunteers in this study. Women are culturally expected to be more people-focused.

In fact, women of all ages "spend more energy...in roles...dealing with the social and emotional aspects of human relationships" (Chambre, 1987: 57). According to the earlier discussion, women have traditionally been and continue to be primarily responsible for a form of caring labor that "involves emotional support, planning, and continual monitoring of others" (Acker, 1988: 488). This is perhaps best supported by the following two findings in this study: the two tasks with highest endorsement by the women across all age groups were the client-focused task of friendly visiting involving emotional support and the client-focused task of activities involving social and planning skills. Therefore, it is not unexpected to find such a large proportion of women volunteers involved in primarily client-focused volunteer tasks.

What is perhaps most striking about the results in Table 7 is that a substantial proportion of the women with organization-oriented work positions are involved in volunteer tasks that are mainly client-oriented. Given that women's access to labor force positions has traditionally been limited compared to men and that women are trained and concentrated in relatively few occupational areas, there is reason to believe that these women may have had little control in choosing the kind of paid work they did. Perhaps the 22 women whose paid work experience was organization-focused and whose volunteer involvement was more client-focused viewed their volunteering as a supplement to their paid work experience. For example, a factory worker stated that the paycheck was all she found satisfying with her main work but that her she enjoyed her volunteer work because she felt appreciated by those she helped. Therefore, this relationship is worthy of further inquiry to determine the extent to which these factors may have influenced the proposed relationship.

Work Tasks: A Difficult Analysis

As noted by Hoad (1991), the analysis of the division of labor in terms of work tasks—be it volunteer tasks or tasks characteristic of one's main work—proved to be difficult largely due to the variation within some volunteer task areas and the potential

for variation within specific main work categories. The implications of these elements are discussed as well as other factors (i.e., setting) that may complicate the study of volunteer tasks, making the generalizability of tasks, problematic.

Due to the variation within task areas and job categories, the variables "volunteer tasks" and "job orientation" are difficult to analyze in terms of "client-focus" or "organization-focus." The following pages discuss some of the ways in which certain volunteer tasks and job orientations may be viewed in either a "more client-focused" or a "more organization-focused" manner, suggesting the need to develop a more accurate measure of what a volunteer actually does within their past or present work setting and volunteer setting. Immediately thereafter, the importance of the setting to the analysis of volunteer tasks is addressed.

A task area that has variable interpretation is "activities." Although the activities for residents in long-term care settings are generally social in nature--such as bingos, birthday parties, pub nights--it cannot be assumed that all volunteers who assist with a specific activity such as birthday parties are "client-focused." For instance, a volunteer's involvement with birthday parties may only consist of baking a cake, purchasing supplies, or decorating--all of which are more organization-oriented in nature. Therefore, a more detailed account of what specific actions are performed within a task area will likely yield a clearer account of what volunteers actually do.

Hoad's (1991) study of volunteers in the independent hospice movement concluded that some tasks performed by volunteers proved difficult to categorize because different hospices had different expectations for volunteers providing essentially the same task. For example, Hoad (1991: 240-241) found volunteers who provided transportation services carried out the task in different ways: the volunteers at one hospice were simply "taxi drivers who were not expected to develop continuing relations" whereas other hospice volunteers involved in driving patients spent time with the patients, providing companionship. Therefore, a volunteer providing transportation

services may be more "organization-focused" as depicted in the "taxi driver" analogy or more client-focused as in the case of establishing a personal relationship with the patients.

Not only can there be differences in similar task areas within the same type of setting as demonstrated by Hoad's (1991) study of Hospice organizations, variation with respect to volunteer motivations may also vary by the specific facility within a group of similar types of organizations. This was best illustrated by the volunteer reason "to fulfill religious obligations." Among the five long-term care organizations participating in this study, two were affiliated with a particular religion. Having compared one long-term care organization to another, the results indicated that 77.8% of the volunteers who identified religious obligations among their top five reasons for volunteering were from the religious affiliated long-term care settings. More importantly, 66.7% of these volunteers came from one of the two religious organizations, suggesting that the specific religion may be a critical factor in the analysis. Although distribution of the volunteers in this study varied from one long-term care setting to another such there was insufficient representation of volunteers for meaningful comparative analyses, the above-noted example serves only to illustrate that the consideration of various setting-specific factors may be necessary to further the understanding of volunteer experiences and motivations.

Like volunteer tasks, the analysis of job orientation --as it is based on one's main work position and the tasks commonly associated with that position--is problematic due to the potential of variation within the pre-established job positions or categories. For example, a respondent who indicated "food service worker" may reasonably be a waitress --where it is believed that her work tasks largely entailed direct client service--or a cook which may be considered more organization-oriented due to the responsibility of staffing her kitchen, dealing with vendors, placing orders, et cetera. Another example lies within the job category "private household worker." A respondent may be primarily employed as a baby-sitter (direct client service) or household worker (organization-oriented) that

provides cleaning and/or cooking services (i.e., "Molly Maid"). Therefore, it appears that the measures utilized in this study to help assess the nature of one's work and volunteer tasks are susceptible to varying interpretations.

The Importance of Setting

As suggested by Hoad's (1991) study, the particular setting in which volunteer tasks are performed may differentially influence the manner in which a task is performed. In addition to the organization-specific expectations as to how a certain task should be executed, two other major setting considerations prevalent in today's long-term care environment are worthy of discussion: the influence of the more global reason for the existence of long-term care facilities and the influence of paid staff--particularly unionized workers such as the nursing staff--in determining or shaping the extent to which volunteers can work.

Providing care for those who are unable to care for themselves is the defining quality of long-term care facilities. And as such, the general orientation promoted by long-term care organizations is to serve the client. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that within this environment, volunteer tasks are likely to be more client-focused in their orientation--as noted by the confirmation of the volunteer task areas (eight client-focus, five organization-focus) by the volunteer coordinators and the volunteers.

Another setting-specific factor that is likely to influence, or limit, the type and extent to which certain work tasks may be performed by volunteers is the presence of paid workers, particularly those backed by strong unions. As the stability and security of jobs in today's economy become more and more a thing of the past, paid workers are perhaps more threatened by the presence of volunteers who may potentially threaten the existence of their paid work position. Perhaps in an effort to best secure their current work position, paid workers who have certain job protection advantages through union membership, may exercise their power to protect their job by contesting any work done by a volunteer that conflicts with union contracts. Thus, the presence of unionized

workers in an unstable work environment may seriously limit the extent to which certain tasks are performed by volunteers. According to one volunteer coordinator, such a situation is characteristic of at least one of the sampled long-term care organizations. With a variety of work positions backed by unions, including less skilled positions such as clerical workers, volunteers may find that some organizations are limited to mainly passive activities such as friendly visiting.

Therefore, not only do long-term care settings present potential variations in volunteer involvement as compared to other types of organizations (i.e., youth organizations, political organizations) identified by previous researchers (Pold, 1990; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1991), but important setting differences may exist *amongst* long-term care settings. Such differences are likely to affect the volunteer's involvement (or extent thereof), making the work done by long-term care volunteers difficult to generalize.

The Effect of Occupational Class Upon Motivation to Volunteer

Earlier, a very strong correlation between age and volunteer motivation was reported. Having theoretically identified the potential effect of another variable, occupational class, it is important to test whether the correlation between age and motivations holds up while controlling for occupational class.

TABLE 8: Occupational Class by Age Group

OCCUPATIONAL CLASS	AGE GROUP				Row Total
	15-24 Years Old	25-39 Years Old	40-59 Years Old	60 & Older	
Lower-Skill Worker		2 66.7%	8 53.3%	33 61.1%	43 46.7%
Higher-Skill Worker	1 5.0%		7 46.7%	21 38.9%	29 31.5%
Student Status	19 95.0%	1 33.3%			20 21.7%
Column Total	20 21.7%	3 3.3%	15 16.3%	54 58.7%	92 100%

P-VALUE= .000
CRAMER'S PHI= .676
MISSING VALUES= 13

CHI-SQUARE= 84.12
DF= 6

However, as demonstrated in Table 8, a problem emerges that limits the analysis: nearly all the younger volunteers are students. Without a sufficient number of young who are not students, establishing an effective control for the potential influence of occupational class upon the age and motivation relationship is not possible.

Similarly, the disproportionate number of respondents within each of the four age groups severely limited the analysis of the relationship between occupational class (lower-skilled and higher-skilled categories) and volunteer motivations. With the exclusion of the youngest volunteer group from the analysis, only three (of 72) respondents remain to represent those volunteers under the age of 40. Even if the demarcation for younger volunteers were to include the women under 50 years old--where a permanent main work position has assumedly been established even in the cases of young mothers--there would only be 11% (8) representing younger volunteers.

Given that the disproportionate representation of age in this study was reflective of all the female volunteers in the long-term care settings sampled, it appears that testing by questionnaire the influence of age and occupational class with respect to volunteer motivations within this very specific setting may be extremely limited.

Despite the limitations of analysis regarding the effect of occupational class across ages groups, an attempt to detect occupational differences with respect to one's motivation to volunteer among the oldest volunteer age group was accomplished. Among the "60 and Older" group, there were 61.1% from lower-skilled work histories and 38.9% representing the higher-skilled workers. The following cross-tabulations were performed with respect to occupational class: to contribute to the community, to help others, to make new friends, to give more purpose to my life, and to do something. Results from these analyses were not found to be statistically significant. However, a pattern did emerge from the cross-tabulation of class and "to contribute to the community" where the higher-skilled workers were proportionately more likely to identify this reason within their top five ranking than the lower-skilled workers (61.9% versus 42.4%, respectively).

Although the analyses were limited, partly due to a sizable proportion (18.2%) of non-respondents among the older volunteers and the potential for discrepancies among classification of main work position, the above finding is particularly noteworthy because the reason "to contribute to the community" suggests a class distinction. This reason reflects a sense of moral duty such as in the case of the noblesse oblige helper where the elite help those less fortunate (Sherrott, 1983). Therefore, further investigation into the relationship between class and reasons for volunteering may be worthwhile.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The intention of this study was to develop and test a more systematic approach to studying volunteers in long-term care settings that would provide a more precise profile of who tends to volunteer as well as explain why women volunteer in long-term care organizations. The sociocultural perspective, based on the life course transitions which emphasize the age-stratified work roles of women, clearly demonstrated its versatility and utility in systematically explaining the relationship between the major social characteristics and motivations of long-term care volunteers.

In terms of the profile of the typical volunteer, this study has demonstrated the importance of age and age-related experiences such as marriage, education, and work force participation in describing and differentiating those who volunteer in long-term care settings. This study also demonstrated the need for the volunteer literature to profile the social characteristics of volunteers in terms of age and thus, help to explain the apparent discrepancies found in the current volunteer literature.

Furthermore, the findings of this study have also stressed the importance of recognizing that volunteer profiles must take into account the specific setting in which the volunteers are working. This point was effectively illustrated in the comparison of the long-term care volunteers in this study with the volunteers of the 1989 Statistics Canada study. Unlike this study, Statistics Canada's 1989 profile of the typical female volunteer included women from various types of settings including education and youth areas. Given that women of the adulthood stage (25-44 years old) are predominantly concentrated in volunteer settings that involve children and that long-term care settings involve providing care for aging adults, the lack of "adult" female volunteer representation in this study as opposed to Statistics Canada's 1989 study is reasonably explained by the volunteer context.

This study has also shown the value of a life course framework, with its emphasis on age-based experiences, in distinguishing and understanding the motivations of volunteers. The findings confirmed the general hypotheses that older women were primarily motivated by internal reasons and younger women primarily by career-related reasons. These findings are important in the development of a sociological theory of volunteering because they establish the basic sociocultural argument that volunteering is grounded in age-specific cultural expectations, pressures, and social conditions. The identification of the age-specific cultural expectations of work, the pressures to work or to contribute to the community, and the specific social conditions shaping one's behavior to conform to the appropriate work role or work stage in this study have provided a broader understanding of how and why the motivations of older volunteers vary in comparison to the younger volunteers.

At the same time, the analysis of the data has also demonstrated that the relationship between age-specific expectations and motivations was more complex. The findings revealed that career-orientation alone was not sufficient to explain the younger women's volunteer participation. In particular, a substantial number of younger volunteers also cited internal motivations to explain their volunteer involvement. This suggests the need to develop a sociocultural paradigm which recognizes common cultural values that may extend beyond the different age groups and relate more specifically to gender and other factors. For instance, the literature confirmed that the work experiences of women of all ages continued to revolve around caring or helping forms of labor. As well, notions of community service appeared to extend beyond the age boundaries of the volunteers in this study, which may not be simply gender-specific, but nevertheless important to acknowledge as a value that persisted in this culture.

In looking at the age-specific differences in volunteer motivations, this study also acknowledged the further complication that there have been important historical changes in women's work roles which relate specifically to the groups of volunteers compared in

this study. The older women did not experience the same career and education pressures as the younger volunteers in this study. For example, Statistics Canada (1994) reported that women's work role in terms of educational qualifications sharply increased between 1981-1993, confirming the educational discrepancies found among the older and younger volunteers. It is arguable that the younger women have experienced different social and cultural pressures concerning their roles in the family and in the larger community. The differences between the older and younger women observed in this study may partly reflect these historical differences.

On the other hand, the findings that certain values and ideas related to women's "appropriate" work roles are apparently shared across the different age groups suggests again that there are also some similarities that continue to persist. These findings relate to the kind of work women typically do. For example, women continue to be primarily responsible for the caring labor where "emotional support, planning, and the continual monitoring of others" largely define women's work tasks, whether in the voluntary or paid context (Acker, 1988: 488). Similar work experiences among women suggests that their orientation and motivation to work may also be similar. In this study, the findings demonstrated that similar internal motivations, particularly "to help others" and "to contribute to the community" persisted among several of the younger and older volunteers.

Helping behaviors, such as those involved in caring labor and reflected in the internal reasons "to help others" and "to contribute to the community," are expected of women in this culture. In fact, a statistical difference among the older and younger volunteers was not found with respect to these specific internal reasons, thus supporting the argument of a broader cultural expectation which crosses different age groups and which may be gender-specific. On the other hand, evidence of age differences with respect to the interpretation and meaning of the reason "to help others" was detected.

The findings revealed that older women described only an internal gratification with "helping others" whereas several younger women stated that "helping others" provided both internal gratification and an opportunity for acquiring external, career-related rewards.

Although this study largely concentrated on the work patterns and its influence upon volunteer participation among the youngest and oldest volunteer groups, the sociocultural approach may also be useful in the future study of volunteer patterns among the middle-age cohort, particularly in light of the current labor market context. For example, business mergers have resulted in the elimination of many managerial level positions and the closing of once-successful factories have laid off many middle-aged workers, particularly men, with several years of seniority (Atchley, 1991). With volunteer work providing both external work-related rewards such as the opportunity to use and update skills or gain valuable references and the internal work-related rewards of a sense of purpose and association, it seems reasonable that the motivations of middle-aged volunteers may change to reflect the more immediate social pressures brought on by the economic climate. In other words, a potential shift in the motivations of middle-aged volunteers may be detected—from "more internally-oriented" to more "career/job-oriented"—if middle-aged workers, on a large societal scale, are involuntarily forced out of their paid work positions prematurely. Thus, a sociocultural approach to studying long-term care volunteers which is sensitive to historical shifts may also help explain the motivations and changes in motivations with the other age groups (i.e., the middle-aged) that were not emphasized in this study.

It was also recognized in the literature that one's work experiences and opportunities are class-specific and that class may play an important role in the type of work women do as well as their orientation and motivation to work. This suggested yet another variable that may help explain the volunteering people do. However, the range of volunteer tasks within the long-term care settings was too small to produce any

meaningful conclusions. On the other hand, the predominance of lower-skilled kinds of volunteer tasks within the long-term care settings and the profiles from other volunteer research involving other kinds of volunteer work suggests that class is important to maintain as a variable.

As mentioned above, the nature of the volunteer tasks in long-term care settings may be described as lower-skilled work, where there is a relative lack of intellectual functioning and little to no autonomy or control involved on the part of the volunteer. Coupled with the severe funding cutbacks by the Canadian Federal Government and the Ontario Provincial Government, health and social service organizations are pressured to shift more and more of this kind of menial work to volunteers, particularly women who are primarily responsible for this kind of caring labor. From the government point of view, it is important to have women who need to do this kind of work for career-related purposes and who value it for its internal rewards.

However such changes in health care and social service organizations raises some concerns for the future direction of volunteering involving caring labor. This study identified that younger women's volunteer involvement is largely based on the expectation of gaining career-related rewards with several indicating that their volunteer involvement was required by their school. The students' "forced" involvement into a volunteer role raises the question as to whether younger women are being exploited as sources of free labor, especially if the social, cultural and economic pressures intensify. As well, there is the concern that this will begin to transform the way in which people view this kind of work, particularly the young. This study identified the persistence of the desire to help others among the older and younger volunteers. However, this may be jeopardized as younger women learn that more and more of the social and emotional support involved in caring for others is shifted to voluntary workers and the paid workers, who are trying to meet the increased demand for care with fewer paid staff, attend to the more immediate physical needs of the elderly.

Volunteer involvement in these types of settings where women provide much of the direct care may also undergo some dramatic changes as women will also be expected to provide more direct care to their aging family members as a result of deinstitutionalization. The provincial and federal governments are moving towards deinstitutionalization where the burden of care is shifted from the public to the private domain (Armstrong and Armstrong, 1994b). As a result, families, particularly female members of the family, are primarily responsible for care of their loved one(s). The impact of this additional workload for women raises serious implications as to the potential risks of the caregiver's health and well-being and that of her family's—not to mention the probable decline in the availability of women to volunteer in long-term care settings. Middle-aged women are especially at risk of being "sandwiched" by the burden of caring for their own family and the for their aged family member(s) while, at the same time, socioeconomic pressures continue to push women into the paid work force. Thus, the provision of caring labor by women, whether in a volunteer capacity, a paid work context, or as a family obligation, may undergo some dramatic changes and ultimately change the value and motivation that compels women to do this type of work.

The Implications for Volunteer Programming in Long-Term Care

The sociocultural perspective, particularly the location of an individual within the life course, is a tool that can effectively guide volunteer coordinators in the development and improvement of volunteer programming processes such as recruitment and maintenance strategies. Not only does the sociocultural approach enrich our understanding as to where one may begin looking to recruit sufficient numbers of volunteers—such as the school system in the case of younger volunteers—but it also addresses why certain reasons are more commonly identified by members of a specific age group which, in turn, may help maintain stability and efficiency of the entire volunteer program. The following pages address these issues and concerns.

As suggested by this study's findings, volunteer coordinators may concentrate their efforts upon the school system and the friends and relatives of current volunteers for recruitment of additional volunteers. Over 40% of the younger volunteers stated their volunteer involvement began as a result of a school placement, therefore making the local high schools, college, and university a likely target for recruiting young volunteers. As well, volunteers in all age groups primarily attributed their volunteer involvement at the long-term care organization to a friend or relative—with the exception of the 15-24 year old age group who identified a friend or relative second to a school placement process. This suggests that a fruitful source of additional volunteers to the program is the current volunteer pool itself. Therefore, a coordinator may focus his/her efforts on developing ways to encourage current volunteers to recruit their friends and relatives.

A second major concern for volunteer coordinators is maintaining an effective and stable volunteer program. Aside from satisfying the organization's and clients' needs, it is important to address the desires and needs of the volunteer. In other words, what expectations and goals does the volunteer have or hope to achieve with respect to their volunteer experience. Learning what the volunteer expects from the volunteer experience during the interview process—thereby indicating *why* she is volunteering—the volunteer coordinator can better place the individual in a specific program or task area that are likely to meet the volunteer's expectations and consequently, retain the volunteer and establish a degree of stability. This is precisely where the sociocultural understanding of women of various age groups is most important.

For example, as this study demonstrated, internal rewards are most desired by older women, such as a sense of purpose which was recognized by 81.8% of the older volunteers as a reason for their volunteer involvement. With respect to this particular reason, understanding the relationship between the central value of work in the North American culture and the limited ways in which older women can express this value, the volunteer coordinator can better understand the expressed and sometimes unexpressed

needs of the volunteer's desire to be engaged in purposeful activity such as volunteer work.

A second example of how the sociocultural understanding of women's volunteer involvement can help maintain an effective and stable volunteer program is illustrated with the younger volunteers (15-24 years old). The findings in this study uncovered a pattern of 'recent' involvement among the younger volunteers as well as a primary interest in gaining external rewards from volunteering, specifically career-related rewards, that may be described as a means to an end. For instance, it was found that over 40% of the young volunteers identified the reason "to fulfill a school or course credit," an indication that their involvement is likely to end with the completion of the course requirement. Such information is valuable to the volunteer coordinator in executing and organizing an overall effective volunteer program in two ways: one, to modify the degree and length of training for those with potentially 'short-term' commitments and two, to initially place these 'short-term' volunteers in programs that do not depend on a more long-term commitment of the program's success.

Given the demonstrated utility of the sociocultural approach in this study which examined only a single key element of the theoretical perspective, there is great potential for expanding our understanding of volunteers as the other elements of the sociocultural perspective may be explored in the future. For example, examining other key elements of the sociocultural approach such as the role of social interactions and of signs and symbols may deepen our understanding of how cultural and social expectations evolve and how language may help to maintain the cultural expectation across the ages despite historical changes and shifts of women's work roles. Therefore, the sociocultural approach to volunteering is likely to continue to expand our understanding with the inclusion of all the key elements.

In summary, further research to expand upon many of the issues discussed here may serve to broaden and deepen our limited understanding of what motivates women of

various ages to volunteer in long-term care. Although difficulties did arise in this study—such as a low response rate among the oldest volunteers to some of the questions and the limited interpretive certainty of the meaning of the internal motives for individual volunteers—the inclusion of additional methodologies such as the interview method and the refinement of existing measures through extensive reliability and validity checks may, in part, resolve these issues. By and large, the questionnaire style did help to identify potentially lucrative areas of study within the topic of volunteerism. Future researchers, using a methodological style that allows for a deeper penetration into the motives of volunteers, are likely to further advance our understanding of the relationship between major characteristics and motivations.

APPENDIX "A"

LETTER OF INSTITUTIONAL AGREEMENT

RE: Master's Thesis Research on the Major Characteristics and Motivations of Female Volunteers in Long-Term Care Settings.

AUTHOR: Linda Fata, B.A. in Counselling & Interviewing, Minor in Gerontology

The purpose of the proposed study is twofold: to provide a detailed descriptive analysis of the major characteristics and motivations of female long-term care volunteers and to present a sociocultural explanation of the proposed relationship. The information uncovered by this investigation—such as identifying how the individual came to volunteer at the organization and the reasons why they continue to volunteer—may help long-term care organizations develop and/or improve their volunteer recruitment and programs.

Both the Volunteer Coordinator of Windsor Huron Lodge, and the researcher, Linda Fata, agree to the following procedures:

- * The researcher will provide the necessary number of questionnaires, envelopes, postage, poster, and other needed items for the distribution of the survey.
- * The questionnaire will be distributed on site (at the organization) in the following manner:
 - the questionnaire and cover letter will be enclosed in an envelope with the individual's name on the envelope. Volunteers will either be handed the questionnaire (i.e. volunteer coordinator or guard) or pick up the survey at a convenient and accessible location. A SASE will also be enclosed with each survey.
- * Respondents will either return the completed questionnaire via the mail or to the clearly labeled box (located at the organization), provided by the researcher. Those questionnaires returned on site may either be mailed to the researcher (postage supplies provided by the researcher) or the researcher may collect them in person.
- * To improve response rates, a follow-up questionnaire may be mailed to individual volunteers. In keeping with the confidentiality of the volunteer's agreement with the organization, the organization agrees to address the necessary mailings with postage and labels provided by the researcher.
- * Upon completion on the study, the organization and any/all participants (volunteers) will be provided a summary of the results and conclusions by the researcher.

Linda Fata
Researcher's Signature

Thomas Munro
Volunteer Coordinator

May 4/96
DATE

LETTER OF INSTITUTIONAL AGREEMENT

RE: Master's Thesis Research on the Major Characteristics and Motivations of Female Volunteers in Long-Term Care Settings.

AUTHOR: Linda Fata, B.A. in Counselling & Interviewing, Minor in Gerontology

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Both the Volunteer Coordinator of Leamington United, and the researcher, Linda Fata, agree to the following procedures: Mennonite

- * The researcher will provide the necessary number of questionnaires, envelopes, postage, poster, and other needed items for the distribution of the survey.
- * The questionnaire will be distributed on site (at the organization) in the following manner:
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- * To improve response rates, a follow-up questionnaire may be mailed to individual volunteers. In keeping with the confidentiality of the volunteer's agreement with the organization, the organization agrees to address the necessary mailings with postage and labels provided by the researcher.
- * Upon completion on the study, the organization and any/all participants (volunteers) will be provided a summary of the results and conclusions by the researcher.

<u>Linda Fata</u>	<u>Rosemary Lin</u>	<u>March 14/96</u>
Researcher's Signature	Volunteer Coordinator	DATE

LETTER OF INSTITUTIONAL AGREEMENT

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AUTHOR: Linda Fata, B.A. in Counselling & Interviewing, Minor in Gerontology

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Both the Volunteer Coordinator of Essex Sun Parlour, and the researcher, Linda Fata, agree to the following procedures:

- * The researcher will provide the necessary number of questionnaires, envelopes, postage, poster, and other needed items for the distribution of the survey.
- * The questionnaire will be distributed on site (at the organization) in the following manner:
 - the questionnaire and cover letter will be enclosed in an envelope with the individual's name on the envelope. Volunteers will either be handed the questionnaire (i.e. volunteer coordinator or guard) or pick up the survey at a convenient and accessible location. A SASE will also be enclosed with each survey.
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- * To improve response rates, a follow-up questionnaire may be mailed to individual volunteers. In keeping with the confidentiality of the volunteer's agreement with the organization, the organization agrees to address the necessary mailings with postage and labels provided by the researcher.
- * Upon completion on the study, the organization and any/all participants (volunteers) will be provided a summary of the results and conclusions by the researcher.

Linda Fata
Researcher's Signature

Joe Lepp
Volunteer Coordinator

March 14/96
DATE

LETTER OF INSTITUTIONAL AGREEMENT

RE: Master's Thesis Research on the Major Characteristics and Motivations of Female Volunteers in Long-Term Care Settings.

AUTHOR: Linda Fata, B.A. in Counselling & Interviewing, Minor in Gerontology

The purpose of the proposed study is twofold: to provide a detailed descriptive analysis of the major characteristics and motivations of female long-term care volunteers and to present a sociocultural explanation of the proposed relationship. The information uncovered by this investigation—such as identifying how the individual came to volunteer at the organization and the reasons why they continue to volunteer—may help long-term care organizations develop and/or improve their volunteer recruitment and programs.

Both the Volunteer Coordinator of Western Regional Hospital and the researcher, Linda Fata, agree to the following procedures: met campus

- * The researcher will provide the necessary number of questionnaires, envelopes, postage, poster, and other needed items for the distribution of the survey.
- * The questionnaire will be distributed on site (at the organization) in the following manner:
 - the questionnaire and cover letter will be enclosed in an envelope with the individual's name on the envelope. Volunteers will either be handed the questionnaire (i.e. volunteer coordinator or guard) or pick up the survey at a convenient and accessible location. A SASE will also be enclosed with each survey.
- * Respondents will either return the completed questionnaire via the mail or to the clearly labeled box (located at the organization), provided by the researcher. Those questionnaires returned on site may either be mailed to the researcher (postage supplies provided by the researcher) or the researcher may collect them in person.
- * To improve response rates, a follow-up questionnaire may be mailed to individual volunteers. In keeping with the confidentiality of the volunteer's agreement with the organization, the organization agrees to address the necessary mailings with postage and labels provided by the researcher.
- * Upon completion on the study, the organization and any/all participants (volunteers) will be provided a summary of the results and conclusions by the researcher.

Linda Fata
Researcher's Signature

Sheelzy B. B. B.
Volunteer Coordinator

March 6/96
DATE

LETTER OF INSTITUTIONAL AGREEMENT

RE: Master's Thesis Research on the Major Characteristics and Motivations of Female Volunteers in Long-Term Care Settings.

AUTHOR: Linda Fata, B.A. in Counselling & Interviewing, Minor in Gerontology

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Both the Volunteer Coordinator of VILLA MARIA, and the researcher, Linda Fata, agree to the following procedures:

- * The researcher will provide the necessary number of questionnaires, envelopes, postage, poster, and other needed items for the distribution of the survey.
- * The questionnaire will be distributed on site (at the organization) in the following manner:
 - the questionnaire and cover letter will be enclosed in an envelope with the individual's name on the envelope. Volunteers will either be handed the questionnaire (i.e. volunteer coordinator or guard) or pick up the survey at a convenient and accessible location. A SASE will also be enclosed with each survey.
- * Respondents will either return the completed questionnaire via the mail or to the clearly labeled box (located at the organization), provided by the researcher. Those questionnaires returned on site may either be mailed to the researcher (postage supplies provided by the researcher) or the researcher may collect them in person.
- * To improve response rates, a follow-up questionnaire may be mailed to individual volunteers. In keeping with the confidentiality of the volunteer's agreement with the organization, the organization agrees to address the necessary mailings with postage and labels provided by the researcher.
- * Upon completion on the study, the organization and any/all participants (volunteers) will be provided a summary of the results and conclusions by the researcher.

Linda Fata
Researcher's Signature

Sandy K. [unclear]
Volunteer Coordinator

MAY 15 1996
DATE

APPENDIX "B"

SURVEY QUESTIONS	RATIONALE
1.	Verifies definition of volunteer as defined in "Definition of Terms."
2.	Assists in description of what led the volunteers to this particular Itc organization. Also, demonstrates the broader sociocultural influences upon the individual.
3.	Helps to describe length of volunteer's commitment to the organization.
4.	Provides greater description on the relative amount of time volunteer has committed and continues to commit to organization (long-term vs. short-term volunteer). Such a distinction is valuable to recruiting, training, and placing volunteers to meet the needs of the organization and volunteer.
5. Sub-Hypothesis (#1)	Identifies what tasks or task areas volunteers commonly perform. Compared with respondent's current/former main work experiences to determine relationship with volunteer tasks.
6. Central & Secondary Hypotheses	To identify, via direct question regarding motivation, volunteer's reason(s) for volunteer involvement. Ranking established to assist with determining relative importance of reasons for individual. Recoded into career-related and internal reasons for volunteering, and evaluated to assess primary orientation of volunteer motivations.
7. Central & Secondary Hypotheses	A second measure to determine the relative importance of a variety of reasons/aspects of volunteering for the respondent

SURVEY QUESTIONS	RATIONALE
8. Central & Secondary Hypotheses	Provides opportunity for respondent to express in own words why volunteering is important to her. Attempt to gain further depth as to why one volunteers.
9, 10, 11, 11A-E & G-K, 12-16 All Hypotheses	Helps to describe respondents in terms of some major characteristics such as educational status, work status, financial status, marital status/family dynamics, age, and occupational class. Some variables will also assist in explaining the hypotheses such as the factors influencing the representation of women 25-39 in long-term care volunteer settings.
11F, L	To potentially identify if the reasons for volunteering identified by the respondent corresponds to the aspects of one's main work experiences (paid work or unpaid domestic labor) that are/ were found satisfying .

Date

Dear Volunteer:

My name is Linda Fata and I am a graduate student in the Sociology & Anthropology Department at the University of Windsor. Currently, in cooperation with (*specify long-term care organization*), I am preparing to conduct my research in the area of volunteerism and your help is needed. Your response to the enclosed questionnaire is very important to the outcome of this study.

The severe cutbacks in the healthcare industry and its crippling effects on the quality of care for long-term care patients has directed increasing attention to the value and indispensibility of trained and dedicated volunteers. The information uncovered by this investigation may help long-term care organizations improve their volunteer programs. As a result, long-term care organizations can better meet the needs of their volunteers and ultimately restore the quality of care to their patients.

Your responses will be held in strict confidence: Individual names WILL NOT be used in this paper. I would also like to encourage you to please indicate your willingness to participate in a brief interview by responding to the question below. At the completion of this study, a written copy of the findings and results will be made available to any and all participants upon request. Please return your completed questionnaire and cover letter in the enclosed stamped envelope by (DATE). Your returned questionnaire and signed cover letter will serve as your consent to participate in this study.

Lastly, I would like to inform you that this project has been approved by the Ethics Committee at the University of Windsor, Department of Sociology and Anthropology. Any questions or concerns regarding ethical methods can be addressed to Dr. Alan Hall at 253-4232 ext. 2202. Also, feel free to direct your questions or concerns regarding this research project to the address provided below. Thank you for your cooperation and timely response.

Sincerely,

Linda Fata
1666 Ouellette Ave #502
Windsor, On N8X 4V2
(519) 254-8428

Your Signature

In the event that it is necessary to gather more information regarding your responses to the enclosed questionnaire: (Please indicate your answer)

____ I may be contacted in the future for a brief interview.

Your Phone Number

____ I may not be contacted in the future for a brief interview.

INSTRUCTIONS: Your response to the following questions are important to the study of volunteerism. Please read and answer each question. For those questions with a [], please indicate your response by placing an "X" in the appropriate box. Thank you for your participation.

YOUR VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE:

1. On average, during the last year, how many hours per month did you volunteer for long-term care organization(s)? *(Please include any work/preparation done off-site)*

- [] less than 4 hours/month
- [] 4-10 hours/month
- [] more than 10 hours/month

2. How did you first come to volunteer at this organization?

- [] school placement
- [] assigned by a social or community service agency (i.e. United Way, etc)
- [] newspaper advertisement
- [] friend or relative
- [] co-worker(s)
- [] solicited by the long-term care organization
- [] other (please specify) _____

3. When did you first start volunteering for this organization?

- [] within the last 6 months
- [] 6 months to 1 year ago
- [] near 1-2 years ago
- [] near 3-5 years ago
- [] near 6-10 years ago
- [] more than 10 years ago

4. Since you first became a volunteer at this organization, which statement best describes the amount of time in which you volunteer at this organization?

- [] overall, I volunteer more hours/month then when I first became a volunteer.
- [] overall, I volunteer less hours/month then when I first became a volunteer.
- [] overall, I have volunteered about the same number of hours/month.

5. Please rank the top 5 categories that best describes the main task(s) you currently perform for this organization. (a rank of #1= primary task)

- ☐ fundraising
- ☐ counselling
- ☐ teaching
- ☐ providing or assisting with a religious service
- ☐ performing, entertaining
- ☐ friendly visiting/providing companionship
- ☐ looking after the personal needs of an individual(s) [i.e. shopping, doctor appts.,etc]
- ☐ office work, administration, and/or bookkeeping
- ☐ help in Gift Shop
- ☐ organizing events, supervising or coordinating activities (If particular activity, please specify) _____
- ☐ sitting as a board member _____
- ☐ transportation
- ☐ other (please specify) _____

6. Please rank the top 5 reasons on why you volunteer at this organization. (#1=most important reason)

- ☐ to obtain skills and training
- ☐ for something to do
- ☐ to explore a career
- ☐ to use my skills and experience
- ☐ to help others
- ☐ to contribute to the community (sense of moral duty)
- ☐ to fulfill a course requirement/ school credit
- ☐ to establish potential career contacts
- ☐ to make new friends
- ☐ to fill the day or pass time
- ☐ to give more purpose to my life
- ☐ for admission into a college, university, or professional school
- ☐ for my resume
- ☐ to fulfill religious obligations
- ☐ other (please specify) _____

7. How important are the following aspects of volunteering to you: *Mark only one box for each question.*

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Too Important	Not At All Important
A. Meeting people / companionship?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Feeling appreciated by those you help?...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. Improving your job opportunities?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. Doing something with your spare time?..	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. Being of service to others?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F. Using your skills and experience?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G. Being a part of a respectable organization in the community?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H. Being a part of an organization with a reputation for career prospects?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. Please explain, in your own words, why volunteering is important to you?

EDUCATION & OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCES:

9. Currently, I am...

- ☐ not a student.
- ☐ a high school student—please specify grade level: _____
- ☐ a part-time college student—please specify # of college years completed: _____
- ☐ a full-time college student—please specify # of college years completed: _____
- ☐ a part-time university student—please specify # of university years completed: _____
- ☐ a full-time university student—please specify # of university years completed: _____

10. To date, the highest level of education completed is...

- ☐ less than a high school diploma
- ☐ a high school diploma
- ☐ a trade school certificate or college (2 year) degree
- ☐ an undergraduate university degree
- ☐ a masters degree
- ☐ a doctorate degree
- ☐ a professional degree
- ☐ other training (please specify): _____

11. The following category best describes my current work situation: (Mark only one)

- ☐ I am working for pay. GO TO
☐ I am with a job, but not at work (i.e. on strike, on sick leave, etc) #11 "A"
☐ I am not working for pay.

If not working for pay: (Mark all that apply)

Are you...

- ☐ out of work and looking for work?
☐ a homemaker/housewife?
☐ retired?
☐ in the armed services?
☐ disabled, too ill to work?

(GO TO PAGE 5 , QUESTION "G")

A. Please list your current job title(s) and the average number of hours per week you spend working in the specified position(s).

<u>JOB POSITION:</u>	<u>HOURS/WEEK:</u>
1. _____	_____
2. _____	_____
3. _____	_____

B. Which occupational category BEST describes the MAIN work position you hold? (Select Only ONE)

- ☐ nurse, dietitian, or therapist
☐ health technologists or technicians (i.e. dental hygienist, nurse's aide)
☐ clerical worker
☐ sales worker
☐ social or recreation worker
☐ teacher, college and university
☐ teacher, not college or university
☐ manager or administrator
☐ craftsman (i.e. baker, seamstress)
☐ food service workers
☐ cleaning service workers
☐ personal service workers (i.e. hairdressers, child care workers, airline stewardesses)
☐ private household worker (i.e. babysitter, housekeeper, cook)
☐ other (please specify) _____

C. With respect to your main occupation, which statement best describes your work situation: *(Mark only one)*

- ☐ I am an hourly wage worker.
- ☐ I am a salaried worker.
- ☐ I work on commissions only.
- ☐ I am self-employed with employees.
- ☐ I am self-employed without employees.
- ☐ I am working without pay in family business.

D. How concerned are you about the possibility of becoming unemployed?

- ☐ very concerned
- ☐ somewhat concerned
- ☐ not at all concerned
- ☐ never really thought of it before

E. Briefly list the duties/tasks of your primary work/job:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

F. What aspects of your work do you find satisfying?

(GO TO PAGE 7, QUESTION 12)

If not working for pay:

G. When did you last work for pay, either full-time or part-time?

- ☐ never worked for pay. —> *(Go to page 7, question 12)*
- ☐ within the last 6 months.
- ☐ 6 months to 1 year ago.
- ☐ near 1-2 years ago.
- ☐ near 3-5 years ago.
- ☐ near 6-10 years ago.
- ☐ more than 10 years ago.

H. Please specify the three previous job titles you held, starting with the most recent.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

I. Which occupational category best describes the MAIN work position you held formerly? (Mark only one)

- ☐ nurse, dietitian, or therapist
- ☐ health technologist or technician (i.e. dental hygienist, nurse's aide)
- ☐ clerical worker
- ☐ sales worker
- ☐ craftsman (i.e. baker, seamstress)
- ☐ social and recreation worker
- ☐ teacher, college or university
- ☐ teacher, NOT college or university
- ☐ manager or administrator
- ☐ food service worker
- ☐ cleaning service worker
- ☐ personal service worker (i.e. hairdresser, childcare worker, airline stewardess)
- ☐ private household worker
- ☐ other (please specify) _____

J. With respect to your main occupation, which statement best describes your former work situation? (Mark only one)

- ☐ I was an hourly wage earner.
- ☐ I was a salaried worker.
- ☐ I worked for commissions only.
- ☐ I was self-employed with employees.
- ☐ I was self-employed without employees
- ☐ I was working without pay in a family business.

K. Briefly list the former tasks/duties of your primary work/job:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

L. What aspects of your work did you find satisfying?

12. How concerned are you about your current financial situation ...

- ☐ very concerned
- ☐ somewhat concerned
- ☐ not at all concerned
- ☐ never really thought of it before.

13. In what year were you born? _____

14. Mark the category that best describes your current marital status:

- ☐ single (never married)
- ☐ married (including common-law relationships)
- ☐ divorced or separated
- ☐ widowed
- ☐ other

15. Do you have children?

- ☐ Yes, I have child(ren). *If "yes," go to question "A"*
Number of child(ren): _____
Age(s) of child(ren): _____
- ☐ No, I do not have child(ren). *If "no," go to question "16 "*

A. Do you have an adult child(ren) living at home? {Adult child = 18 years or older}

- ☐ Yes, I have adult child(ren) living at home.
- ☐ No, I do not have any adult children living at home.

16. Currently I am...

- ☐ the primary caregiver of a dependent adult (i.e. parent, grandparent)
- ☐ the primary caregiver of a child/children.
Number of child(ren): _____
Age(s) of child(ren): _____
- ☐ not a primary caregiver for a child/ren nor adult.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.

CODEBOOK

<u>VARIABLE NAME</u>	<u>VARIABLE LABEL & VALUE LABELS</u>
id	respondent's identification #
hourmo	volunteer hours/month 1= less than 4 hours/month 2= 4-10 hours/month 3= more than 10 hours/month 9= missing value
howvolu	how came to volunteer 1= school placement 2= assigned by social/community agency 3= newspaper advertisement 4= friend or relative 5= co-worker(s) 6= solicited by long-term care organization 7= other 9= missing value
when	when first volunteered for organization 1= within the last 6 months 2= 6 months to 1 year ago 3= near 1-2 years ago 4= near 3-5 years ago 5= near 6-10 years ago 6= more than 10 years ago 9= missing value
time	overall time: hours per month 1= more hours/month 2= less hours/month 3= about the same # of hours/month 9= missing value

THE NEXT 13 VARIABLE NAMES HAVE THE FOLLOWING VALUE LABELS

	1= #1 task (most often done)	
	2= #2 task (most often done)	
	3= #3 task (most often done)	
	4= #4 task (most often done)	
	5= #5 task (most often done)	
	7= task identified but not ranked	
	8= missing value	
	9= task not ranked in the top 5	
o	fundrais	volunteer task, fundraising
c	tcach	volunteer task, teaching
c	religser	volunteer task, provide/assist with religious service
c	entertan	volunteer task, entertaining/performing
c	visiting	volunteer task, friendly visiting/companionship

<u>VARIABLE NAME</u>	<u>VARIABLE LABEL & VALUE LABELS</u>
c indneeds	volunteer task, look after personal needs of individual
o admin	volunteer task, office work/administration/bookkeeping
o giftshop	volunteer task, help in gift shop
c activity	volunteer task, organize/coordinate/assist w/ activities
c transpor	volunteer task, transportation
o boardmem	volunteer task, sitting as a board member
c feeding	volunteer task, feeding patients
o othrtask	volunteer task, other tasks identified by respondent**

**common responses= decorating, stocking linens, watering plants

THE NEXT 15 VARIABLE NAMES HAVE THE FOLLOWING VALUE LABELS

1= #1 reason to volunteer	*Reason ranked top 5/Not top 5
2= #2 reason to volunteer	0= not ranked in top 5
3= #3 reason to volunteer	1= within top 5 rank
4= #4 reason to volunteer	
5= #5 reason to volunteer	
7= reason identified but not ranked	
8= missing value	
9= reason not ranked in the top 5	

getskill	*getskill5	volunteer reason, obtain skills/training
todosome	*todosom5	volunteer reason, for something to do
xplrjob	*xplrjob5	volunteer reason, to explore a career
useskill	*useskil5	volunteer reason, to use skills and experience
helpothr	*help5	volunteer reason, to help others
community	*comunty5	volunteer reason, to contribute to the community
school	*school5	volunteer reason, school/course credit
jobcontc	*jobcont5	volunteer reason, to establish potential career contacts
friends	*friends5	volunteer reason, to make new friends
passtime	*pastime5	volunteer reason, to pass time or fill the day
purpose	*purpose5	volunteer reason, to give more purpose to my life
admissin	*admisn5	volunteer reason, for admission into college/univ/prof. school
resume	*resume5	volunteer reason, for my resume
religus	*religus5	volunteer reason, to fulfill religious obligations
othreasn		volunteer reason, other reason stated by respondent

THE NEXT 8 VARIABLE NAMES HAVE THE FOLLOWING VALUE LABELS:

1= very important
2= somewhat important
3= not too important
4= not at all important
9= missing value

<u>VARIABLE NAME</u>	<u>VARIABLE LABEL & VALUE LABELS</u>
meetpepl	aspect of volunteering, meeting people/companionship
apreciat	aspect of volunteering, feeling appreciated by those you help
jobchanc	aspect of volunteering, improving job opportunities
dosumtng	aspect of volunteering, doing something with your spare time
toserv	aspect of volunteering, being of service to others
useskils	aspect of volunteering, using skills and experience
respcorg	aspect of volunteering, being a part of a respectable organization
jobreput	aspect of volunteering, being a part of an organization with a reputation for career prospects
student	current student status 1= not a student 2= high school student 3= part-time college student 4= full-time college student 5= part-time university student 6= full-time university student 9= missing value
educlevl	highest level of education completed to date 1= less tha a high school diploma 2= high school diploma 3= trade/business school certificate or college degree 4= undergraduate university degree (bachelors) 5= masters degree 6= doctorate degree 7= professional degree 8= other 9= missing value
worksitu	current work status 1= working for pay 2= have a job but not at work 3= not working for pay 9= missing value
whynowrk	not working for pay reasons 1= out of work and looking for work 2= homemaker/housewife 3= retired 4= in armed services 5= disabled, too ill to work 6= retired and homemaker/housewife 7= retired and disabled/too ill to work 8= not relevant 9= missing value

Unemploy Concern over possible unemployment
 1= very concerned
 2= somewhat concerned
 3= not at all concerned
 4= never really thought of it before
 8= not relevant
 9= missing value

The following variable names share the same value labels:

Variable Names:

Mainjob/*Mainjob1

Pastjob/*Pastob1

Jobtitl

Variable Labels:

Main paid work position by title/*main job by job sector

Former main paid work position by title/*former main work by job sector

Most recent main paid work position by title

Value Labels:

1=nurse, dietitian, therapist
 2= health tech (i.e. hygenist, nurse aide, etc)
 3= clerical worker
 4= sales worker
 5= social or recreation worker
 6= teacher, college or university
 7= teacher, not college or university
 8= manager or administrator
 9= craftsman (i.e. baker, seamstress)
 10= food service worker
 11= cleaning service worker
 12= personal service worker (i.e. childcare, stewardess, etc)
 13= private household worker
 14= agricultural worker (non owner)
 15= other
 16= factory worker
 17=agricultural worker (owner)
 18= homemaker (never worked for pay)
 98= not relevant
 0= missing value

*Value Labels:

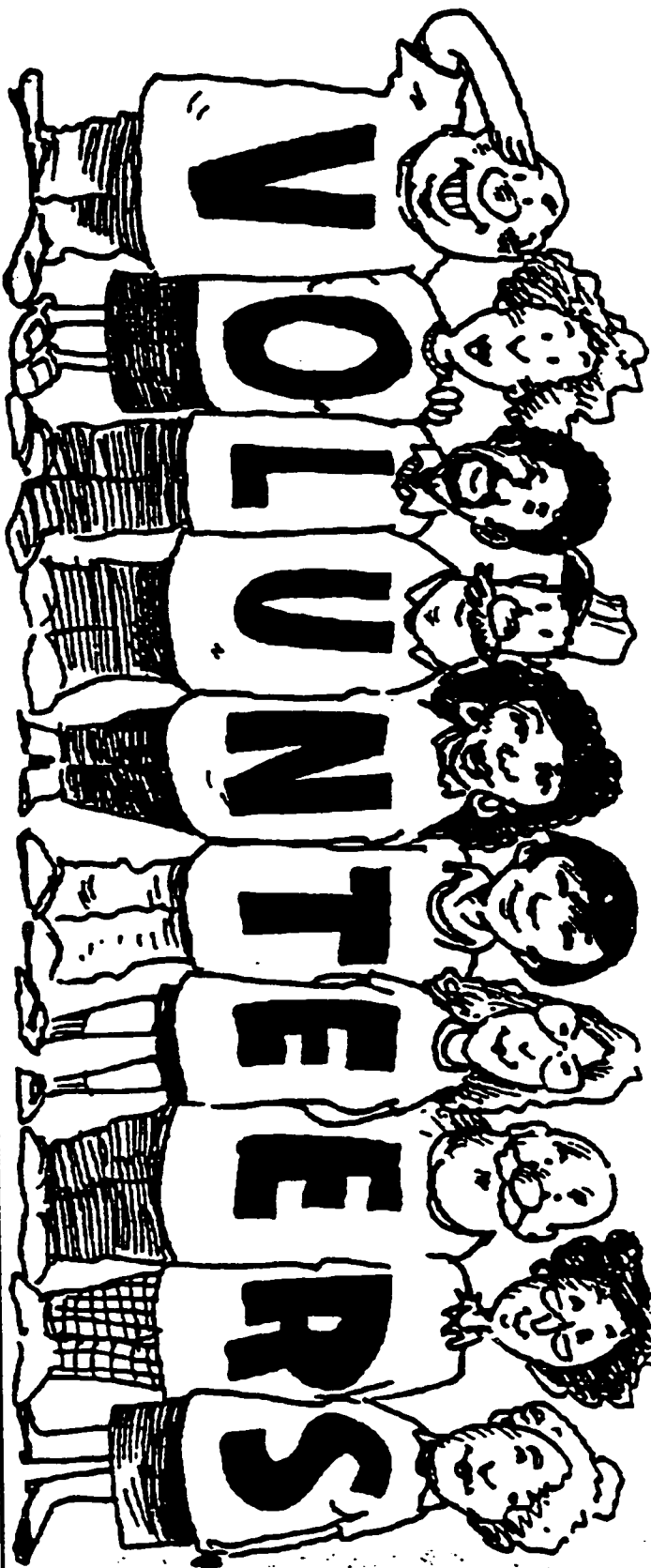
1=Independent Commodity Producer
 2=Managerial
 3=Professional
 4=Semiprofessional
 5=Office/Sales
 6=Service
 7=Production

hrsweek total hours/week one works for pay
 1=15 hours or less per week
 2= 16-25 hours per week
 3= 26-34 hours per week
 4= 35 or more hours per week
 8= not relevant 9= missing value

wrkclass/*wrkclas	<p>Class of worker based on current main work position/*former work position</p> <p>1= hourly wage earner</p> <p>2= salaried worker</p> <p>3= work on commissions only</p> <p>4= self-employed with employees</p> <p>5= self-employed without employees</p> <p>6= work without pay in family business</p> <p>8= not relevant</p> <p>9= missing value</p>
ocupats	<p>occupational class of worker determined by most recent paid work position</p> <p>0= missing</p> <p>1= lower-skilled work</p> <p>2= higher-skilled work</p> <p>3= student</p>
joborint	<p>type of job (most recent main work position) by main orientation</p> <p>1= client-focused orientation</p> <p>2= organization-focused orientation</p>
whenpaid	<p>Last time worked for pay</p> <p>1= never worked for pay</p> <p>2= within the last 6 months</p> <p>3= 6 months to 1 year ago</p> <p>4= near 1-2 years ago</p> <p>5= near 3-5 years ago</p> <p>6= near 6-10 years ago</p> <p>7= more than 10 years ago</p> <p>8= not relevant</p> <p>9= missing value</p>
financ	<p>concern about current financial situation</p> <p>1= very concerned</p> <p>2= somewhat concerned</p> <p>3= not at all concerned</p> <p>4= never really thought of it before</p> <p>9= missing value</p>
age	<p>age of respondent recorded in years</p>

age group	age group of respondent determined by life course stages
	1=15-24 year olds (young adulthood) 2=25-39 year olds (adulthood) 3=40-59 year olds (middle ages) 4=60 and older
marital	current marital status 1= single (never married) 2= married (inc. common law) 3= divorced or separated 4= widowed 5= other 9= missing value
children	Does respondent have any children? 1= yes 2= no 9= missing value
nmbkids	Number of children 8= not relevant 9= missing value
kidsages	Age groupings of respondent's children 1= all children are 17 years old or younger 2= all children are 18 years old or older 3= children are both 17 and younger & 18 and over 8= not relevant 9= missing value
adultkid	Adult children living at home 1= yes 2= no 8= not relevant 9= missing value
caregive	Caregiving situation 1= primary caregiver of a child/ren 2= primary caregiver of a dependent adult (i.e. parent) 3= not a primary caregiver of children nor dependent adult 9= missing value
volreasn	Classification of respondents into reason(s) to volunteer 1= more career-related than internal motives 2= more internal than career motives 3= equally career and internal motives
volutask	type of volunteer task by orientation (c) client-oriented - direct services to residents/patients (o) organization-oriented - general organizational services 1= more client/patient-oriented than organization 2= more organization-oriented than client 3= equally client and organization-oriented

APPENDIX "C"



..Make better employees!!

The Volunteer Internship Program for Arts, Business and Social Science students is a chance to make volunteering really pay off.

As a Volunteer Intern, you will:

- › have valuable community service experience for your resume or law/graduate school application;
- › make new contacts for summer and full-time employment;
- › learn about new occupations before you graduate;
- › receive recognition on your academic transcript for you volunteering.

If you can commit yourself to 4 hours per week for 10 weeks, call us. Co-op Ed. and Student Placement will give you ongoing support in our volunteer employment, and four professional workshops to help you make the most of your volunteer time.

Co-op Education and Student Placement, Rm. 111 Dillon Hall, 253-4232 ext 3903

APPENDIX "D"

OCCUPATIONAL CLASS CATEGORIES
WITH RESPECT TO MAIN WORK POSITIONS

Higher-Skilled Work Positions:

Professionals

- university/college professors

Semi-Professionals

- school teachers
- nurses
- healthcare technicians
- social workers

Managers/Administrators

Independent Commodity Producers

- owners of farms/agriculture

Lower-Skilled Work Positions:

Office and Sales Workers

Service Workers

- personal service workers
- private household workers
- cleaning service workers
- food service workers

Production Workers

- factory workers
- agricultural workers (non-owners)
- craftsmen

Homemakers (Never Worked for Pay)

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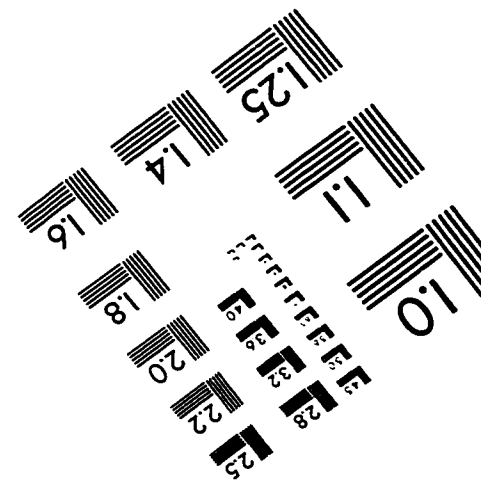
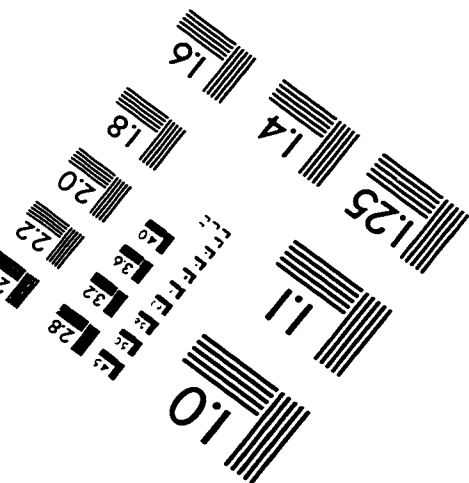
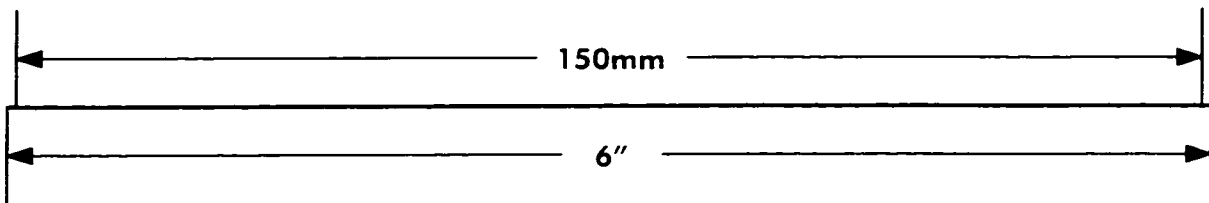
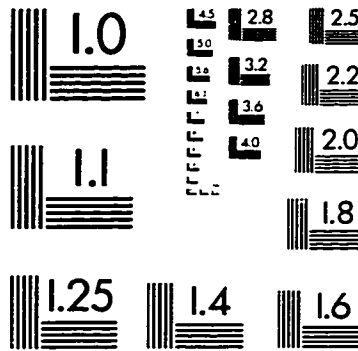
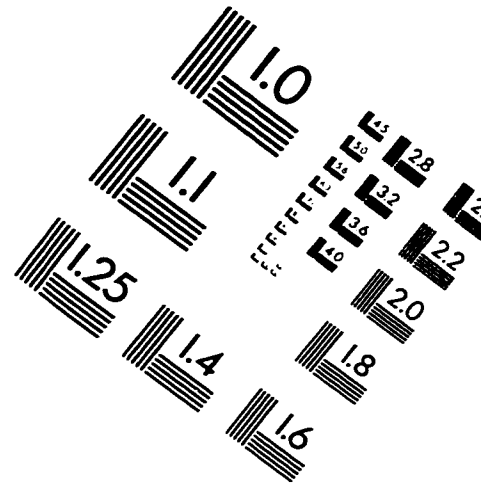
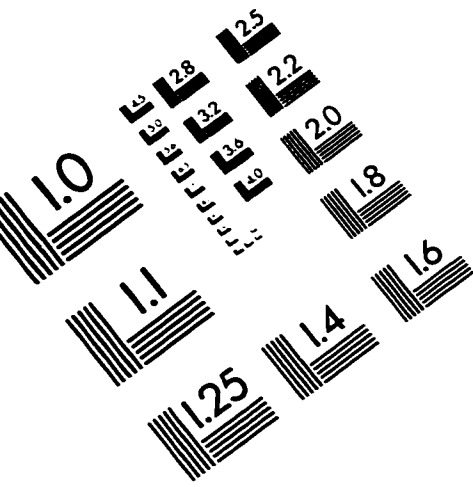
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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